

THE *Bulletin*

OF THE
NATIONAL ASSOCIATION
OF

*Secondary-School
Principals*

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A Speech Program
for the Secondary School

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A SPEECH PROGRAM FOR THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Prepared For

THE BULLETIN OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

By

SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

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Preface

THE dean of a large state university college of education said to me some three or four years ago: "What the people in the field of secondary-school speech education need most is an authoritative program." Although many of us in Speech might have answered that "We have one," most of us would concede that there is need for making it both more articulate and readily accessible. The invitation to prepare copy for this issue of THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals has provided us with the opportunity and a challenge to state our program.

The titles of the fourteen chapters of this BULLETIN state what the committee holds to be essential features of the Speech program. We believe our contributors from every section of the country have spelled out its details. We are particularly pleased to include the fine set of statements from leaders in representative professions included in Chapter I, and the statements from high-school alumni in Chapter II. The reports on programs in Chapter XII clearly indicate how the program works in various types of schools and curriculum in different parts of the country.

The committee here express our appreciation to the many persons who contributed suggestions and/or papers to this BULLETIN. It is our hope that in the copy they will find satisfaction with the fruits of their labor. To those looking for a detailed and co-ordinated statement of what can and should be done to improve the speech education of America's high-school boys and girls, we commit our document. It is our hope and belief that it may serve this end for 1954 and the years ahead.

FRANKLIN H. KNOWER, *Committee Chairman*
The Ohio State University

The Bulletin

OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF Secondary-School Principals

This Association does not necessarily endorse any individual, group, or organization or the opinions, ideas, proposals, or judgments expressed by authors of articles published in THE BULLETIN or by speakers at the annual convention of the Association.

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CHAPTER I

REPRESENTATIVE VOCATIONS
CALL FOR SPEECH

Speech Education and Public Service

KARL E. MUNDT

Senator from South Dakota

AFTER nearly fourteen years in our National Congress—ten in the House and four in the Senate—my conviction that speech education, especially training in debate, is one of the top studies by which one can fit himself for public service remains as firm as it did the day I left a career as a teacher of speech to enter the field of politics by running for Congress. In fact, I would be unable to designate any other single study that I would rank above training in public speaking as a "must" for any young American desiring to equip himself for a career in public service.

The emphasis I place upon the type of effective training in public speaking that one gets from participation in decision debating, for example, stems not alone from the important fact that such training in persuasive public expression enables one seeking public office to present his views successfully and convincingly. That, of course, is of vital importance—after all, anyone seeking high office has to be elected before his views and attitudes can begin to influence the destiny of history. A defeated candidate ordinarily has very little impact upon the course of human events. Nevertheless, the right type of training in the right type of speaking produces a great many dividends—in addition to the ability to win an election—which are of vast value to people in public life.

Virtually all decisions in government affairs are compromises between conflicting viewpoints which are vigorously expressed and ably defended by their proponents. Speech training—especially in debate—teaches pupils to present their own viewpoints consistently, constructively, and convincingly; of equal importance, it trains people to detect the inconsistencies, the inadequacies, and the phoney demagogues which on occasion appear in the argument of one's opponents. In training pupils "to think on their feet," speech teachers first of all have the responsibility to train pupils to think; that means, training in logic and argument; it means training in preparing a sound and sensible "sales talk" for whatever cause or idea is being advocated; it means training in research and accuracy so that a proposition can be documented and buttressed by hard facts and compelling evidence. Modern speech training is, in effect, training in logic, in psychology, in salesmanship, in research, and in composition as well as in the effective oral presentation of a point of view.

Public policies both in the field of domestic and foreign affairs are usually the outgrowth of oral discussion in which all available wisdom is marshalled in the most compelling and convincing manner to the end that those who hear the argument may be converted to the proponent's proposals. Argument without wisdom and learned background may on occasion win a decision on public policy, but it poorly serves the public interest. Unfortunately, wisdom and learning without skillful argument very seldom even wins the argument! Consequently, the well-trained pupil in the various subjects covered in speech education enjoys opportunities for public service which are denied to most but which are of benefit to many.

I place special emphasis upon decision debating as invaluable training for the future public servant for several reasons. Decision debating provides a method for testing and evaluating the techniques and the logic of the speaker. It stimulates pupils to do their best since they are striving for victory, and, once outside the cloistered walls of the classroom, there is no such thing as "no-decision speaking." In actual life every speech worth its saying seeks to convert somebody to do, or say, or think something advocated by the speaker even though it has no greater challenge than to win the auditor's attention for the narration of a travelogue. If the speaker holds his auditor's attention and converts him to his mood, or theme, or purpose, the speaker "wins"; if he fails to do at least that, the speaker "loses." Decision debating also matches the student speaker against others who are striving for success—doing their best—and so it confronts the young debater with a determined challenge and an inspired opponent. Such a situation is indispensable to the development of the perfection of performance and the careful preparation which serve as hallmarks of any worth-while and effective speech.

Speech education in school is of vital importance to the young American who would enter public life because speech training requires group participation. It is not a subject to be mastered by hermits or the subscribers to a correspondence course. Only practice before a competent critic and a sympathetic group of auditors can give a young speaker the confidence, the poise, and the mastery of techniques that an effective speaker needs. Thus, school administrators and vocational guidance counselors have a responsibility, in my opinion, to encourage at least the superior pupils in their midst to take all the speech training they can absorb and the institution can afford while these potential public officials are still in school. Once out of the classroom environment, the opportunity may be forever lost to equip these sturdy intellects and sterling characters with the powers of persuasive expression so essential if they are to win, and hold, and *utilize* public office as a service to their country and to their fellow citizens.

Modern speech education by specially trained and prepared speech teachers is, therefore, in my opinion, something which should be made available to every pupil who seeks it in every school which is today meeting its full obligation to make today's training adequate for meeting the challenges and opportunities of tomorrow.

Speech Training for Prospective Engineers

DONALD E. FARR

Methods Engineering Council

IN THE management consulting profession we have the opportunity of meeting and interviewing a large number of engineers. Among these men are those practising all of the engineering specialties. In our interviews and on applications it seems that the sciences and mathematics are always the favorite subjects with dislikes running primarily toward English, history, and speech. Such information has even been used as a clear indication that the pupil should become an engineer. Before we decide that this is right, let us examine the role of the engineer in today's world and see how his technical contributions have affected our standard of living.

We can talk to Tokyo or London as easily as we can sit in our homes and chat! We can see events as they happen all over the world. We can go to Paris or Ceylon very quickly. We have new materials to work with, fine machines for making our work easier, and good methods for doing our daily work so that we have leisure to enjoy ourselves. Yes, our engineers have done well by us technically. They can solve problems that are beyond the imagination of most of us. They design computers that can do mathematical problems beyond the ability of the human brain.

But even if this is a mechanical world, we cannot neglect the human element. All along the line we must deal with people. Our inventions have to be explained to those who build them and to those who use them. The reason for changing people's lives by introducing new methods and new machinery even though they improve their living must be explained and sold to them. And every new gadget makes life more complicated. People have to have all of this explained to them because, after all, the satisfaction and pleasure of people is our ultimate aim.

Technical leadership then must include human leadership, and human leadership is based in part upon communication. This basis is an important one. There must be included knowledge of the subject, ability to impart this to others understandably, and an authoritativeness or bearing that gives others a feeling

of confidence. Speech training, started early, is an important aid in the development of the latter two. Too often engineers who know their subject matter perfectly make a poor impression because they feel ill at ease when talking to others.

Practice in effective speaking develops self-confidence which is the basic ingredient in poise, that much to be desired attribute. The poised speaker will be able to master his subject and his situation and thus will afford the greatest pleasure and profit to his listeners. As the engineer advances to a position of authority in his field, he will be asked again and again to inform interested groups of recent developments, and the knowledge that his speaking ability is adequate can make this task a pleasure. The student engineer will do well to develop the art of speaking along with his technical know how.

If speech training is begun in high school, it will be a great asset in college, helping in classroom recitation and adding to the enjoyment of all activities. Certainly such training should not be delayed, for the sooner started, the sooner it will develop an ability that will be invaluable all the engineer's life.

The Value of Speech Training for Men in Industry

CHARLES N. HILL

**Education Director, Central Division
National Association of Manufacturers**

"I WISH I could talk like that," more than one man has said to me (and I'm not a uranium-tongued orator). This expressed wish identifies the value that some men in industry place upon the ability to speak. In order to avoid extensive subjective judgment, let the demands and opportunities to speak that come to industrialists become the basis for judgment. The reader may add his own evidence to this review and then make his own judgment.

What, then, are some of these occasions for formal speaking? One of the many is the pattern that the more responsible the position the individual achieves, the more probable it is that the demands for skillful speaking will increase. With increased importance, the industrialist achieves offices in noon-day clubs, lodges, city government, school boards, college foundations, *etc.* These make skillful speeches a necessity.

Another occasion is related to the present programs in industry to improve employee relations. These programs go under varying titles. One frequently used today is: "Human Engineering." Such programs depend for their implementation upon the ability to establish two-way communication, both "up"

and "down" and "across" the divisions of groups in the operations. Such communication is to a large extent oral.

Many colleges today are inviting men from industry to speak to students on specific problems. Such phases as industrial relations, control of inflation, the relationship of pure science to applied science, *etc.* are included. Obviously, the industrialist who is to carry this message will usually do it by "making a speech." A man who is able to speak will more readily accept such invitations, just as one who is able to do it well may make the most effective impression upon his listeners.

Another instance of demands for formal and informal speaking is that made during the last few years in the college-industry conferences and training sessions. The unique Kellogg Center at Michigan State College houses such a series of programs. Similar activities are found in such places as Hillsdale College under the Phillips-Taylor team.

Many allied activities indicate the concern and the demand for public speaking: the "faculty conference," evaluated (so well) by King Adamson in the winter 1952 *Bulletin* of the A.A.U.P., Business-Industry-Education Days, the exploratory conference for further study of communications at Ohio State, and the committee for the study of communications in industry of the National Society for the Study of Communications. All these, and more, make demands upon industry's men to present orally ideas, experience, and facts.

A related bit of evidence can be found in the analyses of "traits needed to succeed in a job" that are published. In many of these two traits, of concern to this review, are mentioned: ability to express one's self, and ability to get along with fellow workers. The former carries an evident relationship to this problem. The latter certainly carries the implicit suggestion that "what one says" and "how he says it" are important parts of this ability.

Again reporting the specific. This writer (and many of his former colleagues in speech education and communication) has worked in the speech training of several hundred men in business and industry in one five-year period of college affiliation. Let it be emphasized that these men were taking the training at night in their own communities, and paying for it themselves. Certainly this is a measure of their judgment of the value. In addition, the writer has conducted a twenty-week session of executive speech training in one large industry, and a ten-session program in another. Add to this small effort the many who take the Carnegie training, the toastmasters clubs, the speakers bureaus, adult education courses in speech training, *etc.*, and the total carries an impressive testimony of the value of speech training granted by men of business and industry.

To add another bit of related evidence, a survey conducted by Robert J. Rourke in December, 1951, seems pertinent. He found that, of forty-five com-

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panies reporting, the majority thought that "... a person with a major emphasis in speech training ... would best fit in" the sales department, the training department, or the public relations department. About one third of the reporting group thought such training would be useful in the industrial relations department or the personnel department. It is factual to note, however, that some reported that "speech training is the least necessary" in one's education. However, this phrasing, "speech training," may have been taken to mean training for formal, platform speaking.

If we take "speech training" in the sense of communication, there are many evidences of its use and usefulness. Included would be the day-to-day social exchanges of oral communication, the impact of utterances upon fellow workers and the "bosses," the round-the-table conferences (directed and non-directed) to solve industrial problems, the bargaining conferences between industry and labor, the meetings of the corporation, the radio forums, the testimony before Congressional and Legislative committees, *etc.*

A further extension of this area would include listening. Perhaps, since as in speech education it has only recently received attention, the industrialist has not yet associated his many telephone conversations, *etc.* with the process. There is evidence that this is a part of the whole process. There are few industrialists who do not know that they must listen a great deal, though the idea of training in this skill may be new.

This is but a part of the evidence of the activity of speaking, formal and informal, or (to keep the broad phrase) of oral communication. Upon the basis of this evidence, and that which the reader can add, must come the judgment of the value of speech training to industry. The writer has no hesitation, on the basis of both his experience and education, to declare: "Speech training is of top-ranking importance to the industrialist!"

Speech Training for the Junior Executive

DWIGHT BROWN

Executive Vice-President

Ohio Junior Chamber of Commerce

ONE of the basic aims of the Junior Chamber of Commerce is leadership training, and Jaycees universally recognize that speech training is an integral part of any rounded program to reach this objective.

Jaycee membership is composed of young men between the ages of 21 and 35, predominantly young businessmen, and, in their daily work, two important reasons for speech training are constantly brought to their attention:

1. In every field of business enterprise, skill in human relations is the fundamental prerequisite to success—and the ability to communicate simply, effectively, and persuasively is the keystone of this skill.

2. It is of vital importance that businessmen be able to present to others, in clear terms, the benefits which all derive from the functioning of our business system.

SPEECH-TRAINING PROGRAMS

In the normal course of operation, every local Junior Chamber provides opportunities to develop speech skills. In addition to the verbal reports which a Jaycee may be called upon to make as an officer or committee chairman, most projects undertaken by a local organization require the individual Jaycee to have some contact with the public, promoting blood donations, urging citizens to vote, soliciting support for a school bond drive, and a host of others.

Most local organizations, in addition, have some regular program for giving more formal speech training to their members. A new leadership training program, recently launched by the national organization, includes as an important element a speech training program. Many local organizations have a chapter of Toastmasters International as an activity within their own group. Finally, the Ohio Junior Chamber of Commerce holds each year a contest, "Speak Up Jaycees," designed to encourage the development of speech skills on the part of members. In short, Jaycees recognize that speech training is of vital concern to them as young men seeking to improve themselves and their communities through constructive action.

Jaycees go at least one step further, however, in their efforts to help develop speech skills. The Sixth Annual "Voice of Democracy" Contest was completed finally with the announcement of the national winners on February 1, 1953. It is estimated that over five million high-school pupils have participated in the program, sponsored jointly by the Jaycees, the National Association of Radio and Television Broadcasters, and the Radio-Television Manufacturers Association.

Any tenth-, eleventh-, or twelfth-grade pupil may enter the contest and to do so must write a five-minute "broadcast type" speech and deliver it in the local eliminations. Any community may send an entry to the state contest, although most entries are received from communities where Jaycee organizations have promoted participation.

Almost invariably, it is found that winners in the "Voice of Democracy" contest have had formal speech training through their high schools. It is hoped that the recognition given local and state winners in these contests will stimulate more schools and more pupils to institute and participate in speech training programs.

While the stated purpose of the "Voice of Democracy" contest is "to stimulate high-school pupils to think about and talk about democracy," it is of

course true that such a contest, by stimulating pupils to develop the important skills of intelligent thought and self-expression, has a long-run effect of much broader import—that of helping to develop citizens who are able, and thus more willing, to carry out the obligations of self-government in a free society.

In summary—Jaycees recognize that speech training is prerequisite to personal success and essential to the survival of a free, democratic society. To help meet this need, they carry on formal and informal speech training within their local organizations and sponsor nation-wide contests to stimulate the development of speech skills in the high schools.

Labor Supports Speech Education

BRENDEN SEXTON

Director of Education
UAW-CIO

WHEN the great-grandfathers or even grandfathers of our current high-school pupils went to work, chances were very good that they would not in their whole lives ever work for an employer who would not be known to them personally. However, as the American economy has grown more complex and become more highly organized, the employee and employer have grown increasingly remote from each other. It is a commonplace now for people to be employed in organizations where the total number of employees runs to tens, or even to hundreds of thousands. Under such circumstances, the employee never comes face to face with the employer but only with employees of greater or lesser rank within the organization by which he is employed.

In the latter part of the last, and in the early days of the present century, most employees could deal directly with their employers, with whom they were likely to have almost daily, face-to-face contact. Consequently, it was possible for the employee to influence the conditions under which he worked, the pay that he received, the hours per day he was required to put in by direct appeal to his employer. Now the high-school graduate is likely to find himself a job in the branch of a corporation where decisions with respect to these matters that so vitally affect his life will be made in an office situated hundreds of miles from his place of employment by a person whom he will never see, much less talk to.

For this reason the labor union as the intermediary between the employee and employer has become all but indispensable, and, as a consequence, about eighteen million American workers now belong to unions, whereas fewer than two million were members as late as 1910.

Nor are the labor organizations confined solely to shop workers. Increasingly, the so-called white collar and professional workers have been organizing into unions. Unions like the American Newspaper Guild now represent thousands of workers, and a very great many white collar and technical workers belong to and are represented by the industrial unions that operate in the industries in which they are employed.

Millions of boys and girls who are now in high school will belong to one union or another some time within the next ten or fifteen years. Their ability to function effectively within these organizations will, to a large extent, determine the kind of lives that they will lead, and most especially the kind of economic rewards that they will receive for their work. In order to be able to function effectively within labor unions, one must be able to talk sensibly and effectively, as well as to listen.

In common with most modern organizations, labor unions increasingly are attempting to assist their members in developing the skills of communication. As in the rest of our society, a revolution in the arts of communication is in progress within the labor union movement. Discussion increasingly replaces declamation as participation in the movement grows, and as need for the orator and agitator declines. In the union hall and at the bargaining table, persons skilled in communication are at a premium and their talents are highly valued. These people are able to help win economic rewards not only for themselves as individuals but also for their fellow workers. As a result, they very often win considerable prestige amongst their fellows. They may even become important and influential officials of the organizations to which they belong. With the support of unions, they are also very often effective in influencing the affairs of the communities in which they live. The ability to communicate is all but indispensable in a democratic society. The high-school pupil who develops this skill may very well find that its exercise will bring to him greater rewards than any other skill that he has acquired while at school.

In tens of thousands of offices and plants throughout the United States of America, the local union officer and steward occupies a position of influence almost as great as that of the plant manager, and almost always greater than those in the lower ranks of supervision. At the state and national level, union leaders, as is well known, occupy positions of enormous influence and, at least within the ranks of their own organizations, considerable prestige. Few if any of these individuals could have achieved their positions of influence and prestige if they had not in the first instance developed the arts of communication.

Since the labor movement continues to grow from year to year, opportunities will continue to expand, but these opportunities will be open only to those persons who have learned to listen, to speak, and to communicate effectively.

The Doctor's Needs for Speech

DR. HAROLD MARGULIES

Des Moines, Iowa

MODERN medical practice has completely altered the relationship between the physician and his patient. Many generations of doctors maintained an oracular position of brusque command which included very few invitations for questions. These early men of science (and superstition) dominated an almost completely uninformed clientele, even conspiring with the druggist by using Latin codes and hieroglyphic penmanship. Further, the doctor practiced alone, frequently in a community at a considerable distance from the large population centers so that he rarely attended medical meetings. When he did make a pilgrimage to Boston or New York, he was a silent spectator. Lectures were the very special prerogative of medical school professors and were never delivered by non-academic practitioners of medicine.

With the expansion of medical knowledge and with generally improved education in health matters the doctor has assumed a new personality. He now can take pleasure in being both accurate and effective by helping his patient understand the character of his illness. He very frequently explains at length the rationale for a therapeutic program which can be successful only with the co-operation of the person afflicted.

Possibly the most specific importance of speech training is reflected in the need for the physician to say what he wants to the patient as unmistakably as possible with little opportunity later for reiteration. This has been done so poorly in the past, and unfortunately even now, that there is a specific illness known as iatrogenic disease. This is derived from the Greek meaning "physician induced." It is a common malady emerging from the careless use of language which instills anxieties in the trusting patient. These anxieties in turn lead to symptoms that may be disabling.

Each contact with a patient is a "speech situation" of the most sensitive kind. Facial expressions, gestures, inflections used in conversation, even the construction of sentences or phrases may mean the difference between health and illness. Most people have fixed ideas concerning their bodies. The doctor must not only destroy any inaccurate concepts by seeking them out shrewdly, he must also replace them with correct ones so that the patient may help himself. The chief aim in discussing his illness with the patient is to make him as well acquainted with his problems as possible. There are exceptions to this, of course, but, in general, the patient should fully understand the character of the disease process to be helpful.

The familiar criticism of the frequent use of medical jargon in clinical discussions with laymen is justified. Therefore, the actual presentation of ideas

to the patient involves translations from technical into familiar terms and then further translation into the colloquial language of the patient. This last may be learned by studying his speech patterns during preceding discussions. There is no part of a medical curriculum which offers training in this subtle and essential skill. It is not likely that any change to remedy such a deficit can be expected especially since it is assumed that secondary schools have planned wisely for the future doctor's needs.

Medical schools concentrate on technical facets of the medical armamentarium, leaving actual practice to struggle for itself. Skilled communication is equally important in the application of scientific data to a suffering human. Only the superior physician can elicit from his patient the information necessary for him to make an accurate diagnosis and thus to plan successful therapy. He is able to do this only as he has acquired through painstaking study a knowledge of the meanings of words, including some awareness of semantics. The average patient must be instructed briefly and effectively even before he presents his history so that he knows what it is that the doctor wishes to learn. He must be guided expertly so that he does not wander into irrelevancies. He must be led into maintaining a chronologic sequence when that is considered valuable by his doctor. He must be made to explain what he means by expressions which may be obvious to him but which have many shades of meaning in colloquial speech.

In recording the patient's history, the doctor must describe in modified terms the symptoms he has just heard, but they must be reduced to the common denominator of precise terminology. To do this he must have a control of the instruments of communication which can come only with many years of training. A belated short course in public speech or English literature is a completely inadequate substitute for early experience in the formation of correct speech habits.

There is more to being a physician than treating sick people in the office or hospital. Doctors are usually eager to be highly respected in their medical community. This is especially true with the present increase in specialization. Medical meetings now encourage active participation by men in private practice who have great personal experience with the many problems of clinical interest. Those who can speak well can seize the best means for favorably impressing their colleagues. Study clubs are becoming popular in this country, and they again offer the challenge of public speech to the doctor. If he is persuasive and literate, he will be valuable as a teacher. A very small minority of doctors can thus qualify. Those who do quickly become the leaders.

Traditionally the physician has been an active citizen in his community, especially if it is a small town. He is the only fully accepted spokesman for his important profession. Too frequently he appears confused even in addressing

his own clubs and actually would be self-ruinous were it not for the good-natured tolerance of the audience.

A conscientious and competent doctor will not depend on such a tenuous acceptance to protect him. Certainly he cannot expect undeserved leniency in his consultation room. There his audience is a frightened, lonely person, concerned with the very foundations of his existence. What the doctor says and how he says it are the determining influences in the final impression he makes regardless of his great background of scientific knowledge. He must at that time make an impromptu speech upon which his reputation and the patient's future may rest. If he has prepared capriciously, he will fail at the high level where medicine becomes an art. Therein lies the greatest challenge in medical practice, culminating a lifetime of education.

The Role of Oral Communication in the Air Force

COLONEL EUGENE E. MYERS

Chief

Presentation Support Division Office

Secretary of the Air Staff

Washington, D. C.

IT CAN be said that the work of the U. S. Air Force could not go on without oral communication. Any improvement in all the skills that make up oral communication would, to the extent that it is achieved, improve the day-to-day operations of the Air Force.

Each of the million officers and airmen in uniform today must undergo some kind of training. Many of these officers and airmen will go to schools, both technical and those designed for broader military education. Needless to say, the preparation of teachers for our military schools is in itself an enormous area in which communication is essential and of prime importance. In the Academic Instructor Course of Air University, which grooms Air Force personnel for instructional assignments, great emphasis is placed on communication skills. Attention is given to improving the speaking, writing, reading, and the listening abilities of those attending the course, as these are the fundamental tools with which an instructor works.¹

Every conceivable area in which one person supervises or commands, or works with others, involves the use of oral communication for purposes of in-

¹ Readers located near an AF base or library might get a sharper indication of AF interest in the improvement of oral communication skills. The following are some of the pamphlets and manuals widely used: *Communication Techniques*, *Guide for Air Force Writing*, and *Conference Leadership*.

struction and direction. Every squadron leader, every non-commissioned officer, every group commander, every staff officer must make and reinforce, in spoken terms, the assignments involved in the task.

Every member of a bombing crew, from pilot to gunner, at some point in the performance of any mission, flying or on the ground, requires interchange of information. Indeed the only point of contact a pilot has with his crew is through his comments and directions at all stages of the flight. One cannot conceive of a bomber operation with a dozen or more people involved without knowing that the people involved would not take off, complete their mission, and land without the aid of communication—conversation and discussion.

An Air Force is involved in around-the-clock activities. The mere announcement of actions to be taken in the form of bulletins and memorandums is often not enough. They need the clarification and emphasis that can only be given by oral explanation and indoctrination.

The long and frequently elaborate briefing sessions, in which a commander informs crew members of a training or combat mission, testify to the necessity of insuring that such performance is not only immediately understood but is also sufficiently motivated so that those who listen understand and will want to do what is involved. One of the factors in gauging a man's overall abilities to assume command or other responsibilities is the determination of his ability to speak effectively and persuasively.

At every headquarters or other Air Force administrative office, the necessity for communication with staff members needs hardly be spelled out. At the top-most levels of the Air Force administration there is continuous resort to actions by committees, a never-ending effort to get the minds of many men on particular problems.

People, who have been trained to know without having corresponding training in the art and skills of explaining what they know, frequently provide much less help to the solution of problems than should ordinarily be the case. It is equally clear that skill in oral communication by itself is not enough. The airman or officer must be acquainted with the technical details of what it is he has to do. The broader his general and military education, the better will be his understanding of what he must do, the more imaginative will be his proposals, the more searching will be his questions. Nevertheless, over and above the development of an individual's background is the ever-present necessity that he must someday be able to tell others what he knows. Neglect of this particular skill may make the possession of knowledge itself a matter of reduced importance.

Major General R. C. Harmon, the Judge Advocate General of the Air Force, said in a recent conversation, "An individual might be the best lawyer, scientist, or the best anything in the world, but, if he is not able to communicate his ideas to others, he can very easily be doomed to professional failure."

Contributions of Speech Education to the Work of the Teacher

LYLE W. ASHBY

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ONE myth is fortunately disappearing from the American scene. This is the idea that those who can, do; those who can't, teach. The teaching profession itself is finally beginning to organize enough strength to put this ancient, derisive wisecrack into the limbo of oblivion. The task of the teacher is actually one of the most exacting and difficult of all the professions. We are only beginning to understand the nature of man, how he learns, the forces that cause him to act. The science of human relations is the area of knowledge most in need of development. The teacher is a full-time worker in this still largely unexplored field.

A well-developed, forceful personality is one of the most essential characteristics of a teacher. Speech education develops personality. It would be invaluable if only for this purpose. All of the general and special skills which speech education provides are major dividends in addition.

Speech education has early as well as deferred values. It pays off the pupil while he is in school, making him more effective in both academic and extra-curriculum activities.

When the student teacher is graduated, he must look for a position. If the candidate is interviewed, his or her voice can be a major asset or liability. Sloven, rasping, halting speech will surely turn an administrator away if he has any other candidates to consider. Rightly so. The teacher is an example for his pupils. Actions may speak louder than words, but spoken words are extremely important in the classroom. They are an ever present feature of the intimate relationships of the classroom. Good speech on the part of a good teacher will be imitated by the pupils. So will poor speech. Worse than that, poor speech may be the complete undoing of an otherwise able teacher. In the modern classroom where informal activities comprise so important a part of the program, speech on the part of teacher and pupils is even more important than in the rigidly disciplined school of a few generations ago.

Human relations is the stock in trade of the teacher. And if the teacher is to do well in his task, he must be able to speak well. He must speak to convey instructions to pupils. The manner in which he utters instructions is extremely important. Through his speech he will inspire confidence or create uncertainty.

He must speak to convey information. This remains an important phase of teaching even in the activity centered school.

He must speak to be a leader of his pupils. There is no substitute for speech if the teacher is to be successful in leading his pupils into the paths of self-development.

Consider two extreme examples of first-grade teachers of equal technical preparation. One has a high-pitched, unpleasant voice. It keeps children on edge. The other has a low, well-modulated voice which is pleasant even when firm. Under this teacher, confidence comes to pupils and harmony has a chance to develop in the classroom.

Or consider two high-school teachers. The speech of one is pleasant, firm, well-modulated, easy to understand, easy to listen to. She knows her subject and pupils get the impression that she knows it. Her voice is her ally.

The speech of the second teacher is unpleasant, uncertain, difficult to understand and interpret. She, too, knows her subject but, due to inadequacies of speech, pupils may get the impression that she is uncertain of herself. Her voice is a handicap.

Speech is of equal importance to the teacher as a citizen and member of the community. Here, good speech is the key to the ability of the teacher to be



One of the fundamental activities of speech education is the recording of pupils voices with a view to developing a pleasant, firm, and well-modulated voice through the study of the playback.

accepted into community affairs, to find his way into positions of community leadership. Teachers have not achieved in America the status in the community they deserve in terms of the significance of their work. Good speech is one of the surest routes toward the achievement of a more desirable status. Good speech gives the individual confidence. It is so apparent and desirable a personal characteristic that it opens doors socially as well as professionally.

The teacher who is well versed in his field has many community opportunities if he knows how to speak and put over a message—in the women's club, the Rotary, the Church, the lodge. He becomes, if he chooses, an officer in these community groups. Frequently, he may become an officer of a state or national organization. Without good speaking ability, these opportunities would never be his.

Finally, let us consider the teacher in relation to his professional organizations—local, state, and national of both the general and the specialized type. Which teacher becomes the leader—the good speaker or the poor one? Which has the qualifications of leadership? To be sure, good speech is not the only qualification but, without this ability, there is little likelihood of success in professional organization work.

One has only to observe the work of recent presidents of the NEA to see how significant good speaking ability is. Sarah Caldwell, last year's NEA president, is a speaker of great poise and distinction. J. Cloyd Miller, in 1952 charmed the delegates to the big NEA Assembly by his skill and humor in presiding in Detroit. The most uniform reaction of the delegates at San Francisco in 1951 was their praise for the work of Corma Mowrey as presiding officer. Andy Holt, president in 1950, is nationally recognized as a speaker. These are, to be sure, individuals of great general ability, but their skill in speaking has been an undeniable asset.

Speech education is needed by every teacher. Some people, of course, seem to be blessed with natural skills, but rare is the individual who cannot improve his speech. Young people need speech education as a part of their preparation for teaching. This is a universal need which cuts across all levels and fields of instruction where the art of teaching takes place.

What does speech education do for the average pupil? It improves his confidence in speaking before others. It helps him to bring out the full potential of his voice. It helps him to eliminate voice and speech mannerisms which might lead to embarrassment in the classroom. It will prepare him to help his pupils by example as well as by instruction to make every-day speech a work of art. Most important, it can make a significant contribution to his development into a poised, well-rounded personality.

CHAPTER II

FORMER HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS

SUPPORT SPEECH

I WAS very fortunate in that the high school I attended offered speech courses to all pupils who wished to participate. I had been handicapped by a speaking difficulty; namely, stuttering. I was very self-conscious and shy about speaking before anyone, even my own family.

When I reached high school, the courses and activities were presented in such a way that I felt even I could enjoy speaking. I discovered that, if I put on make-up and a costume, I would lose myself in the character portrayed and not have difficulty speaking. The more I tried, the easier it became. My teacher gave me many opportunities to perform. Through the confidence gained and practice done, I was able to do other public speaking.

Although I had always wanted to be a teacher, I had not thought I could because of my speaking difficulty, but the confidence I acquired from my speech and dramatic experiences, my new interests, and the encouragement I received from my speech teacher led me into my chosen field—the teaching of high-school speech and dramatics.—R. Richard Banker, Middletown (Ohio) High School.



I DO not know what direction my life would have taken if I had not had the benefit of high-school forensic work under your guidance. I know only that my life and my personality would be vastly different today. High-school forensics provided me with an intellectual and an emotional outlet. They afforded an avenue of self-expression suited to my talents such as was not offered in any other phase of the school curriculum. I realize, of course, that other individuals will need to find similar opportunities in other educational activities. Forensics happened to be the particular field of activity necessary for my own development.

Beyond the highly personal value of forensics in my life, I might list the values which they can provide every type of personality: the ability to face a group calmly, even in the face of adversity; the ability to explain and make comprehensible complicated material to varied types of audiences (a skill peculiarly useful to the classroom teacher); the powers of organization and logical reasoning; the ability to evaluate evidence, issues, partners, adversaries, and those who will judge us; and the realization that hard work, co-operation, self-discipline, and fair play are essential to successes that are compatible with the

dictates of the conscience.—Howard A. Cole, Social Science Teacher, Whittemore High School, (Alumnus of Lansing Eastern High School).



THE benefits I have derived from my speech classes are threefold, including gains of an educational, extracurricular, and personal nature. The first, my educational gain, consisted of a thorough study of the history of theater, playwriting, and stage terminology. The second, my extracurricular gain, began as I developed a dramatic hobby through the study of makeup, stiffs of a play, and a unit on direction. I was able to join various local amateur groups as well as the Little Theater to render my services on production stiffs or by directing.

Lastly, my personal gain which was inaugurated with personal voice tests recorded in primary speech classes is climaxed with a dramatic reading which combines all knowledge of voice and body control previously learned in the advanced courses. This last step, my personal gain, has enabled me to become a more self-confident, poised individual.—Ray Caplan, Newport News High School, Newport News, Virginia.



I MUST deal with people from morning until night in my work. One of the most important necessities in business is the ability to express one's self clearly and forcefully. My work in dramatics was the whetstone upon which timing, articulation, and emphasis were sharpened—all vital to conveying ideas effectively to others. Dramatics aided in developing an ease, a degree of poise, if you will, in associating with one man in a conference, or 500 men in a trade association meeting. It took the "glare" out of the "spotlight." Finally, my work in dramatics improved my reading memory, a factor of extreme importance in business today! All in all, I'm sure dramatics did much more for me than I did for dramatics!—W. J. Connelly, Assistant Director of Public Relations, Bakelite Company, New York City, (Alumnus of Elyria, Ohio, High School).



IT'S easy to say that I like speech. Almost everybody who has studied speech in high school has enjoyed the course. But asking somebody *why* he likes speech is something like asking him why he likes music, or poetry, or America; there are dozens of reasons. However, after several days of introspection, I have found what I consider the three main reasons for my enjoyment of the study of speech in high school. *First* of all, I like speech because of the broad educational

and cultural values derived from it. These are the values that, although they are helpful in speech class and in speech activities, are worth while in other ways. There are many examples of these values. However, I shall list four:

1. In debate, which is a part of speech study, we are taught logic and errors in deductive reasoning. While such training is obviously a valuable asset in debating and panel discussions, it will also be of great benefit in many other ways.

2. The declamations used in speech classes often have literary merit. Not only do declamations afford the high-school speech pupil an opportunity to perform something from memory, many of them also provide opportunities for enjoying and appreciating writings of literary importance. I cite, for example, the cuttings of *Arsenic and Old Lace*, *Green Pastures*, and *Our Town*. In oratory, there are speeches by Cecil B. De Mille and other noted persons.

3. Another broad educational value acquired from speech training is the learning of word pronunciation and phonetic spelling taught in most high-school speech classes. This, of course, helps one's spelling and reading.

4. The studying of the world's great orators and excerpts of their speeches has a definite cultural value.

The *second* big reason for my liking high-school speech is the opportunities it gives to air that all-important *ego*. This is especially true of the unfortunate souls like me who seem unable to cope with the problems of co-ordination involved in dropping a basketball into a basket or bucking the opposition on the football field. Speech pupils are known throughout the school. They command respect from the lowly freshmen and sophomores. And if the speech pupil himself happens to be one of the freshmen or sophomores, he soon finds he is known even among the seniors.

Closely akin to the opportunity to express the *ego* is the feeling of accomplishment that comes to the speech pupil who has just performed for an appreciative audience. Nothing is half so wonderful as to have someone come up to you, just after you've given your all in an oration or declamation, and exclaim how much he enjoyed "that speech."

My *third* reason for thoroughly enjoying the study of speech stems from the practical, everyday applications of principles learned in speech study. I find myself utilizing my speech training every day, everywhere. For instance, most people seem to think that the fellow who expresses himself well is more intelligent than the person who has to grope for words, or mumbles, or for some other reason can't convey his thoughts clearly to others. Usually, however, the only difference is a year or two of speech training.

I find my speech education invaluable in getting ideas across to my parents, teachers, and friends in a clear, concise fashion. For the high-school pupil, other everyday uses of speech training present themselves in student council meetings,

making oral reports in classes, and holding interesting conversations with friends, especially of the opposite sex.

After two years of high-school speech training, I can truthfully say that no other subject has ever been so delightfully interesting, or of so much practical value, as has speech. That's why I like it!—Ned Edgington, Van Buren High School, Dayton, Ohio.



I HAVE found the discussion leaders class which is given at Tilden High School as an elective subject an important educational must in a well-rounded course. Besides benefitting from discussions on interesting, controversial topics which were informative as well as stimulating, the majority of my class became familiar with and interested in good group discussions. This, in my opinion, is one of the surest ways of working toward a true democracy. The discussions showed tangible results in a few pupils in overcoming their fear of speaking to an audience. Learning to prepare correctly for and to present forums, debates, and round-table discussions seemed to give pupils, lacking in poise, the confidence they needed.

Another vital topic which helped improve the speaking ability of the pupils was vocabulary building. Many times I have had to pause in my speech, becoming flustered because I couldn't grasp the words I needed to complete a thought. Learning to overcome this and what to do when it happened really helped me. I enjoyed the class immensely.—Phyllis Haber, Samuel J. Tilden High School, New York City.



ALTHOUGH speech work in class never gave me any trouble, I was never especially interested in participating in a regular extracurricular speech program. I felt that I was fulfilling all that was required in the way of school work, and I didn't have any wish to go further. But soon it came to my attention that those in speech were obtaining a much fuller background and were acquiring much more from school than I. So through some of my friends' urgings, I decided to participate in the speech program.

During the half year I have been in speech, I feel that I have gained more than in my other two years in high school combined. Speech has aided me in three different ways. Primarily, of course, I have learned how to participate in speech itself. Speech has also aided me in classwork and socially.

I believe that a person who does well in speech should have no trouble in succeeding upon finishing school, usually, for you learn how to be able to get along with others more easily and to have no trouble in expressing your thoughts and ideas. Some types of classwork seem to come easier, such as history and

journalism. Ever since junior high school, I have tried to keep abreast of the news; but, since I now enter into extemporaneous events, I find keeping up with the news comes even easier. Also, a debater who has spoken on the same topic for one whole year should be quite well informed on the subject. Besides the educational attributes of speech work, I feel that I have gained much socially. I have had some experiences and met some people that I will never forget. Altogether, speech, in my opinion, is the most helpful activity in which one might participate. My only regret is that I didn't join sooner.—Nancy Harbin, Hammond (Indiana) High School.



SPEECH training is a must for all high-school pupils. I found this true when it came to class recitations and informal talks or panel discussions. Before I had any training, to stand before a class made me extremely nervous; my words weren't clear and I made my speeches very uninteresting. And from the point of view of the audience, there is nothing more boring than a nervous person who speaks in a monotone. With training, however, one learns to keep the attention of his listeners. This is the most important thing, since it reduces the speaker's nervousness. Audience contact means simply to look at your audience once in a while, have good inflection in your voice, and speak loud enough for all to hear. I have learned how to do these things and, since last September, I have more clarity in my voice and, what is more, self-confidence.—Anne Hightower, Woodrow Wilson High School, Washington, D. C.



FROM debate I believe I received groundwork for a liberal college education, for the very core of a liberal education—logic, grammar, and rhetoric—must be mastered by the debater. Logic is indispensable for good debating. The debater who knows how to use evidence in a logical way is far ahead of the debater who relies on facts for their face value alone. And although he may never have heard of syllogisms, the logical debater is well equipped to tackle a college education. Even grammar must be mastered by the debater. He cannot be successful until he has a thorough, workable knowledge of correct English expression. Rhetoric is almost synonymous with debate, for the good debater must be persuasive. And this persuasiveness depends not only on the voice but also on the method of effective expression.—William Johnson, Alumnus of St. Louis University High School.



THE value of my four years of speech training at St. Louis University High School becomes more apparent every day. The ability to say what you have to say and to be able to say it with poise and audience appeal is an ability that cannot be over-estimated. In school sessions, club meetings, at public discussions, I can realize the worth of my training. My speech work also gave me the opportunity to meet many really fine people—leaders in business and education, outstanding professional men, and the many fellow speakers whose acquaintance I made. All in all, I consider my speech training the most valuable extracurricular activity I participated in, as well as one of the most valuable facets of my high-school education.—Bernard T. Koon, Alumnus of St. Louis University High School.



ONE of the greatest attributes of the forensic program at OHS is the many opportunities a pupil has to put his classroom learning into a practical working experience. The pupil acquires this experience by acting in plays, taking part in assemblies, entering speech contests, participating in variety shows or speaking before civic groups—all of which are actively encouraged and diligently prepared for.

I believe it is when a pupil is actually taking part in one of these activities that the purpose and the meaning of the classroom work finally becomes clear. It is when a pupil is actually before an audience situation that the idea of organizing his material gains significance; it is when he is actually trying to create a certain feeling or drive his point home that he sees the need of thoroughly understanding his subject. It is when he is actually placed before a group to speak that he realizes the necessity of establishing a rapport and of adapting his presentation to the particular situation. In short, I believe it is through actual experience that a pupil learns most effectively, and I believe that Oelwein High School affords its pupils ample opportunities to receive this experience and training by its varied and active program.—Robert Linder, Alumnus of Oelwein (Iowa) High School.



I REGARD my dramatic training at Elyria High School as the most significant contribution to any success I have enjoyed in my business career. During my early years as a salesman and recent years as an administrator of a very large New York City life insurance sales office, I have been required almost daily to direct and motivate men by addressing sales meetings.

I have found the ability to stand before a group of men and to express myself effectively and dynamically a great asset. The extensive and thorough dramatic training which I received in high school has been the best equipment I could possibly have to prepare for my vocation. I am convinced that such training should be a required course in the curriculum of all high-school pupils.

I firmly believe that sound dramatic training would be a decided asset in any profession.

I welcome this opportunity to express my convictions regarding the value of this important training.—Robert V. McWilliams, Associate General Agent, Aetna Life Insurance Company, (Alumnus of Elyria, Ohio, High School).



MY DEBATING experiences in high school have helped me far more in preparing myself for my future life than any other activity in which I have participated. Interscholastic debating is an extracurricular activity that helps each and every one of us to learn about problems that are of national interest, to make new friends, to learn how to meet the public with greater ease, and to do a better job in our regular high-school studies.

Before I started debating, I didn't speak up in my classroom studies, I couldn't meet people very well, and I wasn't well versed in topics of national interest. Now, after two years of varsity debate, I find myself contributing much more to my class discussions. Also, I read the newspapers and magazines with keener understanding in obtaining information for use in our debate case. In addition to this, I have made many lasting friendships with debaters from other schools.

Debating is sometimes over-shadowed by athletics and other events in high school, but it is certainly something which will help an individual throughout his life much more than other more glamorous activities.—Max Murphy, High School Senior, Columbia City, Indiana.



I DIDN'T know just why I was in that room, except that the bulletin board sign said, "Anyone interested in trying out for the festival play, report to the dramatics instructor"; so, there I was, scared stiff and ready to take my six feet, three out the door at the slightest excuse. But, I stuck it out, and I got a part; and did I work to help get that play ready! On the day we entered the contest, I pushed my lanky frame into a remodeled costume. Its former wearer was a five feet, four gentleman. Then I peaked out at the audience. I could see one of the judges. He looked so bored that I got sleepy. Soon I learned that this was the way all judges look at contests.

I hope I learned, too, the art of being a gracious winner and a good loser. I know I learned the exhilaration of competition; I know I learned poise; I know I learned something about dramatic literature and something about acting and co-operating with others. This is just a part of the thrill of high-school dramatics. This is just a part of what dramatics has meant to me.—Thomas Nankervis, Alumnus of Eveleth (Minnesota) High School.

FROM the perspective of my last year in college I believe speech was the most practical course I took in high school. The experience derived from the curricular as well as extracurricular aspects of my four years of high-school speech has proved useful in nearly every class in college. The figures of speech applicable to literature; the great orations closely associated to history and current international relations; the choice of words necessary for English composition; the wholesome discussion of the age-old problems of labor, war, morality, and government which is a supplement to numerous other courses in the college curriculum—these are but a few less ostensible assets of my high-school speech work which definitely found new usefulness in college.

Probably the most apparent and most important advantage derived from my work in high-school speech is the ability of self-expression. The poise and self-confidence gained through repeated speaking in high school has aided me in classrooms, on dance floors, in fraternal halls, and in every place—social, political, aesthetics, and commonplace—in which I might have something to say. I have felt well-informed in parliamentary procedure and self-assured when acting as chairman at meetings. I have been able to speak fluently and clearly in classes. In common conversation with a couple on a dance floor or with a prospective pledge to my fraternity, I have felt completely at ease and self-reliant. Unmistakenly, much of this grew out of my training for public speaking in high school. I have earned money, gone on trips—college-paid—all due to my speaking experience in high school.—Vern Sheldon, Alumnus of Central High School, Fort Wayne, Indiana.



MY WORK in speech in high school has helped me in many ways. The one I consider most important is that it gave me confidence in myself, not only for public and radio speaking, but also in meeting new and old friends, conversing with elderly and more learned people, and in much of my college work. This confidence was brought about by speaking, from day to day, to a critical group of classmates.

Speech helped me to become more aware of the importance of correct pronunciation and enunciation. I received much training and experience in writing speeches for all types of occasions. We learned to read and speak with expression and feeling. Gestures, through practice, became a natural part in my speaking. The ability to read prose and poetry was developed in our class.—Joan Stockstill, Alumna of Hattiesburg (Mississippi) High School.



I ONLY wish I had the opportunity to tell you personally how much I value the speech and dramatic training that I received while at Fairview. From the day I was graduated from Fairview, through college, to my present position, I have felt that the knowledge received from those courses has been the basis of my career, for it taught me the importance of correct diction; the value of public speaking; and, most important of all, the ability to be able to walk into a room and feel that my arms and legs were securely fastened. In other words, the attainment of poise. I cannot begin to tell you how much importance I place on the speech courses at Fairview, not only professionally but socially as well.—Elinor Waldron, Promotion Director, Charles A. Stevens and Co., Chicago, Illinois, (Alumna of Fairview High School, Dayton, Ohio).



I HAVE learned more from my participation in debate than I have learned in any of my high-school classes or any of my other extracurricular activities. Debating has taught me how to organize my thinking in both written work and oral work, and it has helped me to increase my vocabulary. I believe the one main reason why debating does so much for pupils is that it provides an incentive to do well. Most classwork does not provide this incentive.—Marlene Yost, South St. Paul (Minnesota) High School.



I THINK I can say without doubt that the most helpful single component of my high-school education, in regard to preparing me for college, was my extracurricular speech activity. It is almost impossible to name all the effects which it has had upon me, for through this speech activity I grew tremendously as a pupil and as a person.

The values of debate and extemporaneous speaking to straight thinking and logical organization of those thoughts cannot be over-estimated. Debate teaches one to listen carefully to others, analyze and evaluate their ideas, quickly think of answers of them, and phrase those answers in the most advantageous manner. In extempore, one learns to organize quickly thoughts around a central core and to present those thoughts effectively. Both of these speech media develop in the pupil an awareness of other people and an ability to communicate and share with them something we all need every day and which largely determines our success as individuals. By the nature of the topics used in these areas of speech, the pupil is aroused, too, to an awareness and interest in current affairs which is so often lacking among young people. Because of these things and, most of all, because through speech I gained poise and ability to get along with others, I am very grateful for my high-school speech work.—Dona Young, Alumna of Hastings (Michigan) High School.

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CHAPTER III

A SOUND SPEECH PROGRAM IS BASED ON FUNDAMENTALS

Speech Education for Personality Development

MILTON DICKENS

University of Southern California

ON being asked to speak, you do not simply "put on your mouth" and stand by to admire its performance. When you speak or listen, you do it as *a whole person*. And any attempt to separate the "you" from "you speaking" or "you listening" provides a neat exercise indeed. The significance of this concept is sharpened when we consider our basic educational goals.

The goals of education have often been classified as personal, social, and vocational. As a result of going to school, our graduates should be better adjusted and more effective personalities, better neighbors and citizens, and better qualified to earn a living. To a remarkable degree, training in speech is intimately connected with all three of these major educational goals. Thus speech is indispensable for inter-personal relations, especially in a democratic society; and it would be difficult to name a profession or vocation where oral communication is not important. In this article, however, emphasis will be put upon the first listed goal.

Probably most school administrators would agree that, of all the possible educational aims, the most elusive is that of developing the child's personality. What opportunities and guidance can schools provide by which children can learn to avoid or correct emotional maladjustments, and learn to live more happily with themselves and their fellows? How can we *actually* teach a child to become *a more effective person*? One step toward the accomplishment of this goal is the development of a well-conceived program in oral communication.

Of what shall we understand such a program to comprise? For the purposes of this discussion, six items may be specified:

1. An oral communication screening test for all pupils immediately after school entrance.
2. Clinical help for defectives.
3. A basic course in oral communication for all pupils.
4. Integration of this basic speech course with oral work done in other subjects.
5. Some fundamental course work; such as, public speaking, discussion and debate, drama, or radio-television.
6. A program of extracurricular activities, integrated with the appropriate course work.

We may now consider the possible contributions of a program of the foregoing scope to our basic educational goals, but with emphasis upon the *personal* development of children. Unlike most entrance tests, an oral communication test is personalized—each pupil is individually heard by one or more faculty members. Furthermore, he is evaluated as a whole person speaking. And, although necessarily brief, the pressure of the testing situation tends to bring out identifiable signs of serious personality deviations or severe emotional maladjustments. These data can be immediately given to appropriate counselors instead of waiting for these cases to come to light later by way of unsatisfactory scholarship or asocial incidents.

The screening test will also provide a list of pupils with speech defects. The percentage varies among communities but is in all cases a significant number. In these cases the contribution of the speech program toward personality improvement is probably obvious. The point is worth a brief review, however, because of its implications for pupils with more normal speech.

Clinical and experimental research of the last thirty years has clearly shown the basic relationship between speech defects and personality maladjustments. No one any longer thinks that stuttering, for example, is amusing or that it is simply a problem of muscles in the tongue or jaw. On the contrary, stuttering is now recognized as a manifestation of profound maladjustment, involving physiological, neurological, emotional, social, and vocational aspects. Therapy centers upon the stuttering person, not upon his symptom.

It is useless merely to expose pupils with serious speech defects to the usual sequence of high-school classes and expect them somehow to become "educated." It may even work in reverse; the pupil may finish school more maladjusted, more likely to become a public ward, and less capable of earning a living than he was when he started. Thus, the personal, social, and vocational future of such pupils hinges upon their receiving specialized guidance.

The dividing line between the abnormal and the normal is, of course, shadowy and approximate. This stresses the fact that the close relationship between speech development and personality development, which stands out so clearly in speech disorder cases, continues to obtain in all cases. This fact is helpful in considering the next part of the speech program.

In the second semester after entrance, or as soon thereafter as practical, all pupils should be given a basic course in oral communication. Properly planned and properly taught, this will become the *key* course in the administrator's program for promoting personality development of the so-called "average," "normal" pupil. Suppose we consider this pupil.

For the average child, learning to talk was a remarkably haphazard business. He learned by imitating and by trial and error practice. He learned from his parents, assorted other relatives, his playmates, his radio, television, movies—

from practically anybody. Some of his school teachers may have brought a bit of order out of the chaos and other teachers may have made the obstacles worse. By the time he reaches high school, the average youth has accumulated an extensive and complicated pattern of speaking-listening habits—some efficient, many inefficient, most of them indifferent, none abnormal enough to be classed as speech defects. In general, other aspects of his personality have "just grown" in the same fashion. This, then, is the "average," "normal" high-school pupil for whom the basic speech course is intended. Suppose we describe the course.

The basic course should be founded upon the concept of a whole person speaking and listening. The pupil learns that, to become a better speaker, he must (1) become a more effective person, (2) achieve a better command of facts, (3) become a clearer thinker, as well as (4) control his stage fright, and (5) improve his skill in the use of voice, language, and bodily action. Teaching-learning methods should include: (a) observation and listening, (b) readings and written assignments, (c) oral practice projects with guidance. Practice projects should include conversation, panel discussion, open forums, reading aloud from prose, poetry and drama, committee meetings, oral reports, and parliamentary sessions. For some projects, appropriate use of recording and playback equipment should be included.

The foregoing brief description should indicate that this basic course is a far cry from oratory, or elocution, or voice and diction, or platform tricks, or salesmanship, or oral English. The plan of the course embodies the fact that "how you say it" can never be divorced from "what you say" or "what you are."

It is no pious platitude but a literal statement of fact to say that a pupil cannot become a more effective speaker without simultaneously becoming a more effective person. Thus, the basic course is designed to develop: interest in others, friendliness, emotional control, directness, animation, sincerity, *etc.* These are customary criteria in training effective speakers; they are also the criteria in developing well adjusted, outgoing personalities. The pupil soon learns that a modern speech class is one of the few places where he is expected actually to *practice* becoming a more effective person.

The individual programs for self-improvement, initiated in the basic course, should extend beyond the speech classroom into all the pupil's speaking experiences, both during and after the semester of oral communication training. The administrator will readily see the possibilities here through integration of speech class projects with oral work in other subjects, and through follow-up guidance by the speech teacher in co-operation with faculty colleagues. This becomes a part of the administrator's policy of avoiding over-compartmentalization and recognizing the interdependence among all fields of learning.

The two remaining items of the proposed speech program, fundamental courses and extracurricular activities, should be developed together. The extracurricular program adds to the motivation, realism, and practicality of the classwork; and the classwork prevents extracurricular abuses by providing for adequate preparation, organization, and supervision. The curriculum should provide for training in public speaking, discussion and debate, drama, and, possibly, radio-television. This should be integrated with such extracurricular activities as plays and broadcasts, interscholastic debate, model student legislatures, assembly programs, and the speech aspects of pupil participation in school management.

Fundamental speech courses and activities not only should provide needed outlets for the unusually talented youngsters but should also assist the personal development of those pupils whose behavior patterns have shown a need for certain socializing experiences—team work (as in a play), sportsmanship (debate), organization (model legislature), *etc.* The importance of these activities in the development of personality may also be suggested by considering the effects upon pupils in a school where such outlets are *not* offered. What marks are left upon a boy whose interests and talents along these lines are frustrated—who can but reflect bitterly upon his ill luck to be in a school where only the athletes are heroes?

Now to summarize. A modern program for high-school training in oral communication has been outlined, dealing with the pupil as a whole person speaking and listening. It has been shown how this type of program contributes directly to the development of personality, one of the major goals of all education. Thus, through the speech clinic, personality abnormalities are corrected or prevented; through the basic speech course, the average pupil, by becoming a more effective speaker, becomes a more effective person; through specialized courses and extracurricular activities, the gifted pupil avoids frustration and makes a realistic start in the formation of the personality patterns of leadership.

The Study of Diction Plays Its Part

JACK C. COTTON

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READING, speech, English are listed among "Areas requiring greater consideration in the modern secondary school," in a recent article by a foremost educator.¹ Dr. Grace states. "The era of passing the buck from the college to the secondary school, or the secondary school to the elementary school

¹ Grace, Alonzo G., "Desirable Characteristics of a Modern Secondary School," *NEA Journal*, Vol. 41, March 1952, 145-7.

has passed.—Effective teaching of English in the secondary school requires the co-operation of every member of the staff."

We are indeed grateful to Dr. Grace for this authoritative centering of attention on language as a responsibility of every teacher, even though all may not welcome this responsibility. Certainly, this is something which cannot be taken lightly or assumed overnight, for language is in many regards the most complex and difficult subject to understand and deal with that there is. Even if we omit from consideration all the emotional and personality factors involved in stage fright, audience reactions, stuttering, persuasion, *etc.*, and confine our attention to *diction*, we have a lot to deal with; for *diction* is a big word.

CONSIDERATIONS CHIEFLY SEMANTIC

The area covered by this big word, *diction*, is subdivided into two nominally separate fields denoted by the words, *semantics* and *phonetics*. Semantics is concerned with the significances attached to language symbols of all sorts. Phonetics is concerned with the nature, production, and apprehension of these symbols, spoken, written, or otherwise expressed.

Semantics has long been a subject of interest to philosophers and scholars, but its concepts have been increasingly clarified and made useful through more scientific approaches in recent years. These developments are briefly and well summarized in a recent paper by Prof. Lee of Northwestern University.² This paper includes a rather extensive bibliography of semantic studies appearing in this country during the past thirty years. There are reports of semantic developments in many professions, particularly teaching. Most of these enthusiastic students and advocates of semantics believed a few years ago that language was of little concern to them. Discovery of the error in this assumption is slowly producing revolutionary changes in areas formerly thought to be outside the concern of science. Teachers will profit by careful consideration of these studies.

The writer finds that semantic difficulties are *the* barriers to progress in his courses. Perhaps nowhere are word significations hazier and more ephemeral than for those words applying to language itself. Little progress in phonetic understanding is possible, for example, until the common confusing of *sounds* and *letters* is overcome. Clarification is needed regarding *accent*, *articulation*, *pronunciation*, *throat*, *mouth*, *syllable*, to mention but a few. The semantic measures we are using to "put across" phonetic principles, though essentially as old as education, have some novel features which may make them of similar usefulness to others.

² Lee, Irving J., "General Semantics 1952," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. 38, February 1952, 1-12.

1. Objectifying of Speech

The writer believes that any basically sound program of speech education should include as thorough an analysis and scientific study of the pupil's speech and of speech in general as modern scientific instrumentation enables us to provide. If we are to realize its full potentialities, speech must be brought vividly into consciousness, and its elements discovered and brought under positive and voluntary control.

We believe that these possibilities are only beginning to be realized in a few colleges and universities of this country. There is little precedent for the expenditure of substantial sums of money for expensive speech laboratory equipment, but progress will continue to be made, we believe, as the possibilities of the scientific method applied to speech and language education are more fully realized. A variety of effective laboratory procedures in speech education were developed by the writer at his former teaching position in Bellingham, Washington, before the last war.³ A few of these are mentioned elsewhere in this paper.

2. Insistence on Careful and Critical Reading

Reading assignments of a relatively difficult nature are made short enough to allow time for careful consideration of new concepts and vocabulary and for development of ideas in terms of personal experience. Brief oral objective tests are given frequently to check adequacy of reading and of listening to the oral tests and to provide a basis for discussion of semantic errors which individuals make.

3. Insistence on Careful Listening and Note Taking

Pupils are first lectured concerning the futility of sitting passively, "waiting to be taught" (or entertained). Learning is a decidedly active process. In the typical classroom it involves disciplined control of attention, mental checking and questioning of what is heard, with brief notations on lecture and discussion points as they arise. This note writing needs to be so co-ordinated with listening, through practice, that discussion is not missed while notes are taken.

It is explained that notes so taken are incomplete. Just as a recording secretary must work over and amplify his notes while the meeting is fresh in memory, so the pupil needs to bring his notes into concise, accurate sentence form after class, so that they will be fully intelligible to him or to anyone else, months later. This revision entails checking words and concepts, and making note of questions to be brought up at the next class meeting.

The writer has motivated this commonplace advice in several ways. First, an instructor needs such careful notes or "class minutes." Teachers seldom cover

³ Cotton, Jack C., "Laboratory Program in Speech Education," *Western Speech*, Vol. 3, March 1939, 1-5. The writer can supply reprints of this paper to those unable to secure the original journal.

exactly the items planned for a class hour. After a few days they forget exactly what has been done. Their forgetting may penalize the student.

Second, notes thus carefully edited are far superior to the usual pupil notes from which absent pupils try to "make up" for sessions missed.

A looseleaf notebook is placed on open reserve in the college library for each class. This contains carbon copies of two pupils' revised notes for each class session. The instructor checks over these notes, adding corrections and amplifications as required. Since different students provide these note-copies each day the instructor becomes acquainted with his students' written language while other functions are being served. All pupils are advised to check their own notes against these corrected public copies. This is their chief semantic value.

4. Tests Requiring Written Composition

At one time the writer did his grading almost solely on the basis of objective tests, but a few written tests revealed the average student's woeful inability to express himself accurately. Since that time "subjective tests" have been a chief factor in his grading of student achievement. These papers are carefully corrected and returned to the pupils. In an attempt to make these corrections of more general value to the class, the writer designed and built a reflecting-type projector, with which student papers can be projected on a screen while they are being discussed and written upon.

5. Accuracy of Oral Statement

Thoughtful, leisurely, impromptu speaking or "thinking out loud" is a goal in the writer's classes. Such speaking is particularly essential if basic habits are being modified. Tape recordings enable pupils to check their performances, semantically and phonetically.

CONSIDERATIONS CHIEFLY PHONETIC

Phonetics, too, is a big word, certainly not to be equated with *phonics*, nor restricted in concept to a few symbols in a French textbook. We shall now discuss a few concerns of phonetics, but we can hardly hope to do more than stimulate interest. Phonetic understanding and conviction arrives chiefly "by word of mouth." We urge teachers to consider a good course in phonetics in plans for summer school and extension training.

1. Correct Pronunciation

"There are few subjects on which educated Americans are so ready to pass judgment and give advice on the basis of so little sound knowledge as the pronunciation of the English we use."⁴ This is the opening sentence to the most authoritative book available on its subject. We warn the prospective reader,

⁴ Kenyon, John S. *American Pronunciation*. 10th Ed. Ann Arbor, Mich.: George Wahr Pub. Co. 1951.

however, that unless some unusual teacher has taught him the ABC's of spoken English (which could have been done as early as age 3 or 4) he will find this important book rather difficult reading.

Kenyon discusses "correctness," and explains how our language, spoken and written, became what it is today. The component sounds of English are carefully described in relation to sound and spelling changes which have occurred and are occurring. Three phenomena which every teacher should understand are well explained and illustrated: *gradation*, *assimilation*, and *spelling pronunciation*.

Gradation occurs in the many unaccented syllables of spoken English: all vowel sounds change quality through loss of stress, becoming, usually, the unstressed "uh sound" [a]. Gradation serves the language by making important thought-associated syllables stand out by contrast with weaker, less important connective syllables. A new word is often born, for example, as an adjective-noun combination: "post man". Through repeated use this combination became a single word, accented on the first syllable. The original "short a sound" [æ] of the word "man" was reduced to the rapidly articulated, unstressed "uh sound" [a]. Gradation has caused the vowel [a] to be by far the most used vowel in the language.

Many teachers, knowing nothing of gradation, mistakenly insist that pupils read and speak all syllables with fully stressed vowels, contrary to normal usage and the authority of dictionaries, thus reversing a process whereby English has become the strong and efficient language which it is—potentially.

Part of teachers' misunderstandings stem from dictionaries' complicated diacritical mark systems. The marks in the Merriam-Webster dictionaries, for example, are well explained in the introductory "Guide to Pronunciation" (written by Dr. Kenyon), but probably not one dictionary user in a thousand risks his eye-sight by reading the fine print of these pages. Consequently, few people can determine pronunciations from dictionaries. This fact, too, results from education's neglect of the ABC's of spoken English.

The commonest misinterpretations of Merriam-Webster symbols relate to italic letters. The "one dot italic a" and the "short italic a, e, i, o, and u," plus several other symbols are all used to represent the "unstressed uh" [a]. These are variously mis-read. For example, a teacher seeing an "italic short a" [a] in "postman" may mis-read it as the "regular short a" [æ]. A more damaging disregard of gradation is heard in some teachers' insistence on the "long a" pronunciation of the indefinite article *a*.

Assimilation is our unconscious changing of speech sounds so that they connect more easily. Assimilation has phonetically improved thousands of words, but its existence is recognized by few teachers. For example, the "ch sound" in "nature," "picture," and in the phrase "meet you," "don't you," has been

established by centuries of good usage, but is often opposed on the basis of spelling. This impression that spoken words are derived from written words is obviously erroneous. *Spelling pronunciations* contrary to good usage are incorrect, as these same teachers realize, perhaps eighty per cent of the time.

2. Oral Reading

Rapid silent reading has held the spotlight in education for twenty-five years or more. In many schools oral reading has been almost completely neglected. Unfortunately, the pace often demanded in silent "reading" is incompatible with *reading* in any strict sense of the word: "To take in the sense of language by interpretation of the characters by which it is expressed." We often see a pupil "read" a page in a minute or less which contains numerous words and concepts about which he continues to know nothing. What is worse, he believes that he has *read* the page by this glib mental mixing of symbols, meaningful and meaningless. The results are superficiality, wasted time, and, often, dangerous misconceptions.

The curiosity with which young children greet new and strange objects extends to words in the beginning, and this curiosity should be nurtured rather than destroyed. No one should be expected to read at rates which prevent checking up on new words, or "mulling over" new concepts as they are met. Words are our tools of thinking and communication, potentially useful throughout life. Surely, nothing is more deserving of time for investigation.

Oral reading reveals superficial habits of skipping over unfamiliar words and accepting unconsidered interpretations of words recognized; one cannot so easily hide from himself or his teacher the things he does not understand. The difference between mere "word pronouncing" and good, effective oral reading based on comprehension is so obvious that no teacher should have trouble in identifying total lack of comprehension and misconceptions of varying degree. Yet, poor oral reading is so commonplace today that we tend to accept it, forgetting what good oral reading is. Guests on radio programs who lifelessly pronounce words written for them are said "to sound like they're reading," while experienced members of the cast *who really are reading* are thought to be *ad libbing* or acting, —their reading sounds exactly like their own speech, the words apparently originating with them and being expressed with all the conviction and feeling which they imply.

One learns to read orally by guided practice in reading orally. Few young people have been given the opportunity for or encouraged to do any appreciable amount of oral reading. The writer is convinced that this is a prime reason for our pupils' generally low grade speech today. Nothing can do more for anyone's speech, voice, and vocabulary than thoughtful, regular practice in oral reading. Many factors involved in good speech can be discovered and developed:

interpretation, based on more and more complete comprehension of words and their full context; use of body and face in more fully saying what written words suggest; vocal flexibility and stamina developed through regular and lengthening sessions of oral reading; *etc.* Personal enjoyment of oral reading increases with proficiency. It soon becomes apparent that something is gained in the oral reading of substantial material which more than compensates for the greater expenditure of time: neuro-muscular practice in actual speaking of well-worded sentences and phrases which thus become available in one's own active vocabulary.

3. Voice and Articulation

The sub-optimum speech and voice of most individuals is not due to faulty anatomy, but to the habituation of faulty habits in an educational environment which devotes little if any attention to these basic concerns of the English language.

Good diction may be defined, for present purposes, as a good whisper, superimposed upon a good voice. A good whisper may be distinctly heard and understood over almost any quiet auditorium. One's whisper is an indicator of articulatory clarity. Articulation is, chiefly, a valvular "chopping up" of an otherwise continuous stream of voice or breath into segments known as syllables. These consonantal closures are produced by lips, tongue, soft-palate, and vocal cords, being either complete (stop-plosive consonants), or nearly complete (fricatives, glides, and sonorants). If these valvular actions are performed lazily, weak or inaudible consonant sounds result, so that the speech becomes far less easily understood.

Normal phonation is another valvular activity. Breath is dammed up below the larynx by the vocal cords held tightly together. As breath pressure increases the "cords" suddenly "let go," and a puff of air initiates a sound wave. The release of breath reduces the pressure, vocal cord tension again brings them together, breath pressure rises, another puff is released, and the process is repeated from sixty to a 1,000 times per second, the rate varying with tensions and pressures involved. The lip fluttering of a lip trill illustrates the same process.

Breathy voices are weak and wasteful of breath. The "cords" may not close completely so that escaping breath is audible. Breathy voices lack high harmonics or "richness," and thus lack "carrying power." The quality is not necessarily disagreeable, however. This is "the voice of romance"—and of cheerleaders who have permanently damaged their voices.

If the greater tensions involved in normal phonation spread to some other muscles "tightness" results. Throat muscle tensions cause "metallic" qualities (higher harmonics are too prominent). "Whang nasality" combines nasality and tightness.

Nasality is usually associated with close-mouthed speech and generally lazy articulation. Smokers, smoking, and talking, almost invariably exemplify nasality in some degree. Close-mouthed nasality combines two habits which markedly reduce vocal efficiency: allowing the soft-palate to hang relaxed; keeping the mouth opening too small.⁵

Providing for Growth in the Visual Symbolism of Speech

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THE first step in teaching visual symbolism is to help boys and girls to understand the physical reaction of speaker and audience, how normal individuals unconsciously imitate physically what they appreciate and attend. One teacher opened such a unit on bodily action for speech by coming before the class listlessly, then yawning. As she had hoped, several members of the class yawned too. In reply to her question, "Why are you yawning?" she got the answer, "Because you did." These pupils had recognized how one person can make another do something by doing that thing himself.

Another teacher came quickly forward to the edge of a raised platform, stopped abruptly, waved her arms to keep from falling, regained her balance, stepped back and relaxed. She noted, as did her pupils, that some members of the class jerked with her, balanced a moment, and finally were relaxed and comfortable when she was.

Cutting a lemon and asking pupils to eat sections in front of the class brings puckered lips and sour faces from observers. Unscrewing a tight fruit-jar cover, breaking a tough stick, struggling with sticky gum or scotch tape, lifting a heavy box are all good openings for the teaching of posture, movement, and gesture for communication. These activities all show that observers unconsciously do what they see done, and that a speaker can make use of this tendency in audience control—a tendency which is called empathy.

After having demonstrated audience response, it is a good idea to discuss this principle of empathy with boys and girls—this feeling into what someone else is doing; this reacting almost as if experiencing the fatigue, the sharp sour

⁵ Cotton, Jack C., *A Study of Certain Phoniatric Resonance Phenomena*, Abstracts of Doctors' Dissertations, No. 21, The Ohio State University Press, 1937. Also, Jack C. Cotton, "A Study of Certain Phoniatric Resonance Phenomena," *Journal of Speech Disorders*, Vol. 5, December 1940, 289-293.

taste, the fear of falling, the pull to unscrew the jar, the breaking of the tough stick, or the messiness of the sticky tape.

Pupils will readily recall other experience. They will remember how they have with their bodies followed the movements of football players, jumped with pole vaulters, jerked as basketballs have left players' hands, swayed with dancers, strained with lifters, trembled with the frightened, or relaxed with players during time out. They will be interested that this unconscious reaction comes when they are engrossed in a story, a game, an incident, or a picture. They will see that a person understands an idea or appreciates an object, whenever he assumes a set, a reaction or movement either of the person speaking or of the object itself, and that the reflexion of the stimulus or symbol recalls for him some earlier experience or part of an experience. Thus meaning is dependent upon the set of his muscles and the past experience which is recalled. High-school pupils will see that the speaker and audience are a two-sided, unified human machine, unconsciously giving and receiving stimuli, each affecting the other.

It is well to follow this understanding of the theory with many observations of empathy in home, school, and community. Boys and girls will be able to recognize empathic reaction between parents. Their fathers reflect their mothers' anxieties or their mother their fathers' discouragements or optimisms. Pupils will be able to analyze their own empathic responses; they will feel how their muscles strain, relax, or jerk as they follow what holds their attention.

At this point an attempt should be made to find out how much high-school pupils are able to tell about other people by visible symbolism. They can be tested to see if they can tell whether a person is tense or relaxed, nervous or calm, active or quiet, good-natured or cross, feeble or strong. They should find out how often they can discover what experiences an individual has had by analyzing changes in face and body. How many pupils are able to determine how to approach an individual by learning what impression he makes? For example, can they tell by looking at their teachers when it is wise to ask for a favor? Do they know when the principal has had an easy or hard day? Can they pick the store clerk with the most patience and the most understanding? Are they able to read their schoolmates well enough to be motivated by their real intentions and get co-operation? Even in seventh and eighth grades, boys and girls will see that impressions which they get and give are in a large measure by means of physical response, back and forth reactions, unconscious imitation, *empathy*.

Having understood, observed, and applied the principle in various related situations, the next step is to discover in how many ways it can be of use in

speech. The teacher should aim to have all pupils see that this principle is at the heart of all bodily action for communication. Pupils should see that the speaker reads his audience and reacts, the audience reads the speaker, and likewise reacts. The speaker must then determine what is the best approach to that individual or group. He must assume an appropriate bodily set, and then, through empathy, get the reaction which he wants, remembering that a speaker is able to stir up meanings in observers by doing what it is necessary for those observers to do in order to get the intended meaning. That is, if a speaker can make a listener show anger with his body, that listener will feel angry; if the speaker can make the listener become tense, that listener may feel tense or determined; if the speaker can get the listener to relax, that listener may relax and get the idea that some point is unimportant. In short, the speaker must get the person or persons with whom he is speaking to do what he wants them to do by doing that thing himself in a manner appropriate to the particular recipient.

Pupils will enjoy trying such techniques before different types of audiences and in a variety of speech situations. They will have fun telling stories, making little children jump, look scared, stare wide-eyed, or relax and laugh. They will enjoy preparing speeches for high-school audiences and will soon discover that adolescents react more overtly than groups of adults. In experimenting with empathy in drama, they may be able to get pictures of themselves acting and pictures of their audiences at a given moment. If they can do this, they will often observe that the audience mirrors in a more subtle way the facial expression and bodily set of the performers. In reading poetry or narrative, pupils will see that they can lead their audiences from one kind of bodily set to another depending on the desired idea and on their own control and use of body.

Finally, recognizing the great power which each individual holds over others through the use of his body to stir up meanings, each pupil will see the importance of learning to develop in himself such skill that he will be able to do with his body exactly what is necessary in order to get desired empathic responses in audiences of all ages and all types of experience. Then he will be sure that the ideas, moods, and feelings of reading, speaking, and acting which he wishes to stir up in his observers and listeners are more exact and precise than those which result from the use on his part of fixed rules for standing, moving, and gesturing before an audience. Such a method for developing skill in visual symbolism for communication is based on a sound, psychological understanding of human behavior and understanding, rather than on the memory of what some other individual has done.

Teaching Critical Thinking in the High School Speech Program

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THE educators' use of the term "critical thinking," not too long ago, was bounded by formal logic, the sciences, and mathematics. With the development of the social sciences and increased attention to methodical study of current uses of language, we began to speak of critical thinking about human relations. Speech education, probably through no fault of its own, became involved not only in shaping the physical skills of the youthful talker but also in refining the inevitably associated mental processes that must function if he is to have something coherent to say. When we began to study communication as a science, the speech teacher was challenged to a lifetime of effort to discharge a most difficult duty—teaching his pupils to think more critically about the content and context of his communication.

Those without firsthand experience in speech education often fail to understand the necessity for heavy emphasis on the thought process in training people to speak more effectively. Think for a moment about a high-school class in public speaking. If the training is to be "practical," that is, as much like outside-of-school speaking as possible, at least some of the practice must necessarily concern current social problems. Can the pupil benefit from repetition of errors of analysis and fallacies of argument while laboring to polish voice and diction? Obviously, the conscientious teacher cannot ignore either aspect in bending the twig that is to become the citizen. Many speech teachers have come to assign a higher priority to sharpening abilities necessary to the building of a crystal-clear and orderly unit of rhetoric than to the development of good voice and effected action.

In short, modern speech education insists that it *is* concerned with *what* is said, not only with *how* to say it. We like to think that we are helping people to become more effective communicators in a particular society both for their own benefit and the well-being of that society.

One approach, perhaps the first, to encourage the speech pupil to think critically about his speech materials was to direct him to subjects that were intrinsically thought-provoking. The theory was, "We will force the pupil to think, and he will learn to think by thinking." This worked out better than do most theories. Pupils talked about real problems and increased their actual mental activities in the process. When Bill Olson, first-string guard, planned a speech on "Is High School Football Beneficial to the Player?" he activated more cranial connections than when he composed a eulogy to Ben Franklin.

There was a catch to it, however. One thing went wrong. This approach developed everything but the *critical* part of critical thinking.

People who tried this approach and reviewed the results with the wisdom of hindsight invariably understood what had happened. Anyone can express his current thinking on a controversial issue, even clarify it, if he works hard enough at the task. This is good, but it leads to a dead end. The inadequacies which cause defective thinking on a problem will persist until corrected by positive measures. Bill Olson will continue his bad habits of incomplete analysis and over-generalization until he learns something better. He will not spontaneously generate an improved methodology if he gives a speech a week for the rest of his life. He may speed up his problem solving, but he will not change the method unless he learns how, specifically, a change can be made.

The "critical" part of critical thinking improves when Bill substitutes new thinking habits for old. This is a painful and difficult process. Help from the outside is needed. Fortunately, the speech classroom is suited both to stimulate development of the necessary knowledge and to supervise its application. Prerequisite, however, is the speech teacher's understanding of the fundamentals of critical thinking as they apply to spoken language.

Of recent years a useful term has been bobbing up with increasing frequency in speech education. "Reasoned discourse" has received the endorsement of nearly all. It has been inserted into speech courses and found helpful by some. Reasoned discourse is a kind of communication which urges the audience to suspend judgment and consider the facts before making up its mind. It is designed to reveal both the circumstances considered to be important by the speaker and the logical processes by which he proceeds from them to his conclusion. It contrasts with short-cut methods of impelling an audience toward a belief without establishing good and sufficient reason for holding it.

That part of speech course content which will help Bill and his classmates change thinking habits for the better comes conveniently under "Reasoned Discourse." The tests of evidence, the criteria of arguments from example, statistics, comparison, analogy, authority, the use of deductive forms, and the common fallacies belong here. If taught concretely with abundant use of contemporary examples (newspaper, magazine, radio, TV), these concepts shake off the dust of academic antiquity and become helpful handles for grasping immediate and pressing problems.

Hence, reasoned discourse emphasis (by this or another name) becomes the major means by which the teacher of speech effects improvement in critical thinking. All speaking can be held to the standard of reasoned discourse, advancing with the pupils' knowledges and skills. Reasoned discourse units are taught. Reasoned discourse assignments focus attention upon the need for critical thinking when the speaker's main job is indicated by this implied question to

his audience, "Here is the path by which I reach a certain conclusion; will you check it carefully to see whether or not I am right?" Pupils become aware of the fact that correct, clear thinking, communicated effectively, can be profoundly persuasive.

We have reviewed the increasing interest of speech education in the improvement of critical thinking. How do particular speech programs work toward this end? We will consider, briefly, debate, discussion, and public speaking courses and activities.

DEBATE

A debate program, when it is properly directed, devotes a greater percentage of time to the specific improvement of critical thinking than almost any other speech course or activity. "Properly directed" means that more attention is given to reasoned discourse than to psychological warfare. This implies a keen but friendly desire to compare arguments and evidence for relative soundness—essentially an attitude of inquiry into the reasoning process and its persuasive potential. Also, it demands that evaluation of evidence and fundamentals of logical reasoning be taught to the debater as tools for analyzing and arguing about the particular question being debated.

Transfer of debate learning to the solving of social problems is often quite direct. For example, the debater comes to understand probabilities and finds that the continuum concept applies to human relations. Many pupils discover through debate that we don't either *have* or *not have* the basic freedoms or free enterprise, but that at a particular time we have each to some degree. He learns not to ask, "What is *the* cause of inflation?" Multiple causation becomes real to him as he discovers it in action. He finds to his surprise, usually, that effects frequently assume the role of causes for bringing about other effects.

A venerable criticism of school debate has been that it produces inflexible *pro* or *con* convictions which intensify themselves each time the topic is debated. The opposite often seems to be true. At the end of a season of debate on a topic, debaters are less "set" in their opinions than when they began to study about it. Recognition of strong and weak arguments on both sides gives a qualitative depth to their thinking on the question.

Disputation is a time-honored method of sharpening wits, and we have some evidence that modern school debating attains this end. Howell¹ found that high-school debaters in twenty-four Wisconsin high schools outgained non-debaters in scores on tests of critical thinking ability. Gains varied widely in different schools, suggesting the possibility that "proper direction" may affect the outcome of the debate experience significantly. Brembeck² tested college

¹ Howell, Wm. S. "The Effects of High-School Debating on Critical Thinking." *Speech Monographs*, 1943, Vol. X, pp. 96-103.

² Brembeck, Winston L. "The Effects of a Course in Argumentation on Critical Thinking Ability," *Speech Monographs*, Sept., 1949, Vol. XVI, No. 2, pp. 177-189.

courses in argumentation for improvement of critical thinking ability and found that students in these courses out-gained other college students who neither debated nor studied argumentation, as shown by scores on the tests of critical thinking used by Howell. The similarity of these results might have been anticipated since the methods of argumentation are the tools of debate.

Modern inter-school debate with its preponderance of tournament debating may be ineffective as a process for polishing the public speaker, but it is well-suited to the role of laboratory for the development of critical thinking. The tournament audience is the expert judge, presumably skilled in argument. If provision is made for a period of analysis immediately after each debate, the expert judge can help the debaters on both teams refine their thinking. The tournament provides several successive debates so revision can be tested in later rounds. Debaters leave tournaments with arguments that are much sounder and more effective than those they brought! Since people on the average do more thinking in the solution of problems than public speaking, perhaps the debate tournament is an appropriate forensic activity.

Because debating with emphasis on reasoned discourse is training in the fundamentals of speech planning and preparation, some teachers treat it not as an end in itself but as one step in training the public and private speaker. The skilled debater is expert in using evidence and reasoning. This might be reviewed as pre-requisite to a program of audience speaking or to advanced speech courses. A good debater is equipped to benefit from audience speaking experiences. He is ready to handle speech content problems and think his way through whatever emergencies may arise. He needs advice and practice to develop abilities of audience analysis and adaptation as well as skills of delivery.

DISCUSSION

Discussion—curricular and extracurricular—has been hailed by some as the new, all-purpose speech activity. Advocates of non-advocacy in speech training allege that discussion is the most direct method for developing critical thinking. Some urge that discussion replace debate. Discussion is claimed to be unique as a tool for training future citizens in group problem solving, the essence of a democratic society. It is said to be excellent for improving personality, drawing out the introvert, and smoothing personal relations. It is an easy introduction to public speaking, serving as a gentle transition from being in the audience to speaking from the platform.

With many of these claims I agree. Discussion is methodical group problem solving, rigorous or sloppy, depending upon its execution. The complete freedom of the discussant to say just what he believes and to change his mind, if necessary, builds intellectual independence. The group stimulates itself. People learn to like working together, and both skills in group processes and appreciation of their utility are usual outcomes or discussion.

However, discussion trains the investigator, debate the advocate. Both functions are legitimate and necessary, but it seems wise to keep them separate. If advocacy enters discussion, some distortion of group thinking results. Some proportion of what appears to be impartial reasoning will be intentional and the loading of the discussion to grind the ax of the persuader will be at the expense of the participants who are playing it straight. Pseudo-objectivity is antithetical to efficient problem solving. Hence, we may well urge that the discussion context be one of disinterest as to outcome, while the use of reasoned discourse to impel people toward predetermined ends should be kept out of discussion and allocated to debate and other forms of argumentation.

Concurrent emphasis of two somewhat incompatible objectives may reduce the value of school discussion. If discussion is used principally to develop speech personality in human relations, problem solving suffers. Group thinking on a knotty problem has to be rigorous and rather impersonal to be efficient. Every bit of mental energy ideally is focused on the attainment of the best possible solution. Consciousness of matters such as "How am I impressing Joe?" and



Discussion is an effective means for training future citizens in group problem solving, the essence of a democratic society, as this panel of speech pupils is discovering.

"Am I going to hurt Irma's feelings if I bring up this evidence?" is detrimental to objective inquiry, yet necessary if we are to stress human relations outcomes. Problem solving discussion rests upon the assumption that intelligent human beings can set aside personal differences to deal with an urgent common problem. Human relations discussion advocates deny that this is possible, arguing that personal differences must be resolved before progress can be made in group thinking on the problem, and that the important outcome of the study of discussion is the development of abilities in reducing conflict of personalities.

Probably a heavy emphasis upon the methodology of group problem solving will increase critical thinking ability more than emphasis on human relations. But perhaps "getting along with people" is more important than "solving problems with people." It should be helpful in clearing up his philosophy of teaching discussion for the teacher at least to recognize the possible choices of emphasis and some of their implications.

PUBLIC SPEAKING

What was said about the specific teaching of the methods of using evidence and reasoning in debate and discussion applies to the teaching of public speaking. The teacher can place himself anywhere he chooses along the continuum from complete emphasis on content to complete emphasis on delivery. If he considers critical thinking an important objective in his course or activity, he will settle down perhaps near the midpoint, but between it and the content emphasis extreme. He will be pre-occupied with soundness and reasonableness of the speaking of his pupils. He will use exercises in analysis and the construction and support of arguments. He will have his own simplified system of reasoning to teach, but he will adapt it to the particular course. He will not neglect speech delivery, but he will find that, as pupils learn to dig into their subject matter, they will become more eager to communicate their thinking to other people. This desire to be heard and understood will result in more striking improvement in delivery than long sessions of drill in speech mechanics without such motivation.

Critical thinking as an outcome of speech education seems to be affected by at least two factors: the conscious effort to teach for it as a major objective and the instructor's thorough understanding of the fundamental methods of argument. If the teacher can teach the pupil to word a proposition so that it says what he wants said, to select evidence adequate for its support, and to create an organization that is clear and direct when heard by other people in the form of a speech, then he is coming as close to the direct improvement of critical thinking as can any teacher in the high-school curriculum.

CHAPTER IV

FUNCTIONAL SPEECH ACTIVITIES ARE EMPHASIZED

Teaching Conversation

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A SURVEY conducted by the Columbia Broadcasting System in recent years concluded that we spend nine per cent of our communication time writing, sixteen per cent reading, thirty per cent speaking, and forty-five per cent listening. Most of the time spent in speaking and much of the listening time is devoted to conversation. It is not surprising, therefore, that a study analyzing the types of speech activities of high-school pupils would report, "Conversation is the most important speech activity of high-school students when commonness and frequency are used as the criteria for selection."¹ In spite of these facts, conversational arts are infrequently studied in schools today possibly because some teachers feel it is so commonplace an activity that it need not be studied; others feel it is difficult, if not impossible, to teach because the requisites of a good conversationalist are not always specific or rigid. In spite of this lack of rigidity of principles, however, there are several suggestions that can be made, and, if some work on conversation is incorporated into the secondary school teaching schedule, the ability of the pupils to converse may well improve.

Most individuals who have studied the qualities of good conversation agree that one of the greatest barriers to success in this art is the inability to find a common ground for talk. This seems to be due, in the main, to two reasons: (1) the lack of a wide enough range of knowledge and interest in the participants to insure some common denominator in topics; and (2) the inability of the conversationalists to establish an atmosphere conducive to good talk. The importance of finding good common ground in choice of topics is shown by two studies conducted to find the factors that make for good conversation. McDonald's study² pointed out that nearly three fourths of the pupils questioned said that the "ability to talk on a variety of subjects" was the chief requisite for a good conversationalist. A study conducted by the author³ showed that "having

¹ Kramer, J. Howard. "The Speaking Situations Which Secondary-School Pupils Meet with the Greatest Frequency." Unpublished M. A. Thesis. Colorado State College, 1941.

² McDonald, Eugene. "A Study of Some Factors Related to Conversational Ability." Doctoral dissertation. Pennsylvania State College, 1942.

³ Phillips, David C. "Some Factors That Make for Effective and Ineffective Conversation." Doctoral dissertation. University of Wisconsin, 1946.

an interesting topic" was listed three times as often as any other single factor. The pupil of today meets many people with various interests in numerous situations, and thus a wide background of knowledge and a variety of interests are important if he is to converse easily with all those he meets. Since many pupils tend to talk on a limited range of ideas, stimulation in this area is a forward step in their progress in this important speaking activity.

Correlate with his ability to find common topics for conversation with many types of individuals is the ability to establish an atmosphere conducive to interesting talk. When over 600 pupils were asked by the author to list freely the factors that interfered with good conversation, the most often stated remarks were these: "They excluded me from the conversation"; "The conversation became an argument and put us all in a bad mood"; "They were poor listeners"; "They did not respect my opinion"; "They did not do their share in making conversation"; and the like. While there is certainly nothing new or startling in these statements, conversation is a group activity, and, therefore, co-operation of all participants is necessary. Class discussion and analysis in this direction may help.

The importance of good listening has already been mentioned, but certainly no discussion of conversation is complete without discussing good listening habits. This important but elusive art has achieved a great deal of prominence of late and many books devoted to the subject are finding their way to library shelves. Probably the most important idea dealing with listening as it applies to conversation is that listening must be *active*. Often conversationalists use the time they are not speaking to think up new stories, illustrations, arguments, or even different ideas irrespective of what others are saying. They are quiet, but they are not listening. Good listening means paying active attention to what is being said. This will usually lead to comments, or questions, or further statements along the line of what has already been said. The need for a wide background has been previously discussed and is an essential of good listening since some knowledge may be needed in asking intelligent questions or making pertinent comments. Hesselstine summarizes the situation well when she says the listener should possess ". . . strong intelligence and delicate sympathies, decided opinions; and a docile temper, knowledge as well as a desire to learn, the power to draw out, and the ability to take in."⁴ While perhaps none of these attributes can be taught directly, a study of their meanings and analysis of their use in actual conversations will give the pupil a clearer understanding of what is expected of him as a listener.

The importance of effective use of the voice in conversation cannot be over-emphasized. In the author's study, of the fifty pupils rated by three sets of judges as the poorest conversationalists out of a total of 1,300 examined, exactly

⁴ Hesselstine, Olive. *Conversation*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1927.

half were judged as so unsatisfactory in the use of the voice that they needed special instruction. Only three of the fifty best conversationalists needed such help. Nineteen in the fifty poorest grouping were judged as satisfactory or better in use of the voice, but forty-two of the best conversationalists were so judged. This evidence collaborated the findings of McDonald. The pupils reported that poor vocal quality or use of the voice often resulted in a feeling of inferiority on the part of the poor conversationalists, and thus not only did the voice bother the other people in the group but it also had an adverse effect on the speaker himself. This does not mean that an affected voice or articulation is desired, but merely that the voice must have a pleasant quality and that the articulation and pronunciation should not attract attention to themselves.

While the use of language in conversation does not come up for discussion as often as the other elements presented above, it is a factor that needs consideration. The main emphasis in the use of language need not be on increasing the pupil's vocabulary, although that certainly would be a worth-while goal, but it should stress effective use of the vocabulary he already possesses. Because of the informality present in many conversations, pupils often carry into all conversations the constant use of the same words or phrases. They should be made aware of this monotonous repetition. Also, since many people form the habit of using general terms that often lack real meaning in the situation in which they are used, pupils should be made conscious of the need for using specific and meaningful words. This usually will not mean much expansion of the pupil's total vocabulary, but it will mean a growth in the everyday spoken use of that vocabulary. Though there are other factors involved in good conversation, the study and practice along these lines will lead to an improvement in the quality of the pupil's conversation. Now the natural questions arise, by what methods can these suggestions be used to teach conversation?

First of all and perhaps most important, a thorough study and discussion of these ideas can help. While making a study of conversational ability, the author was constantly struck by the fact that most pupils have never thought about or analyzed their own conversational ability. When asked what they thought of their ability in conversation, nearly every pupil interviewed paused for some time and then answered to the effect that he had never thought about it. The pupils often went on to guess that they were satisfactory in this ability. But when asked such questions as, "Can you always talk freely with strangers?" "Do you have difficulty finding conversational topics with some groups of people?" "Is it easy for you to chat with older people or those in important positions?" many intimated that they had changed their minds after thinking about it. The mere fact that some suggestions as to the qualities of good conversation are presented and discussed may help many pupils. If nothing more than this is done, it will be valuable.

Some teachers go further than this, however. Often class conversations are held and then analyzed for good and poor qualities. At first this type of assignment may result in an unnaturally stilted conversation; however, teachers report that after a while the formality leaves and fairly normal conversations result. In this type of exercise a small number of people, say four or five, are asked to come to the next class ready to converse on some topic of mutual interest such as a dance recently held, a current event, or a school problem.

Another method is to let a spontaneous conversation that begins before the class formally starts continue into the class period. After a while the teacher may stop the conversation and then seek comment and discussion on its qualities. If a tape recording machine is available, this type of exercise may be enhanced by hiding the microphone and recording the conversation. It can then be re-played and stopped at various places for comment and criticism. This is an excellent motivation device as most pupils are quite astounded at the quality of their conversation when hearing it for the first time.

Still another approach frequently used is to have class members analyze some of the conversations they participate in outside of class. Most pupils have paid so little attention to their own conversation and that of others that they are surprised at what actually takes place.

For those teachers who feel the conversation of their pupils needs help but are afraid to tackle the problem, take Goethe's advice and "Begin, for indecision brings its own delays, and days are lost lamenting over lost days." Either by a study of the literature on conversation or by class discussion, or both, develop a few flexible suggestions for good conversation. Follow this by any type of conversational activity that fits the particular class you have, and the time spent will yield valuable rewards.

Developing Interview Skills

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THE two-person speaking situation is probably by far the most frequently occurring of all our communication needs. For every formal speech, we participate in a thousand informal occasions where we must communicate or receive ideas from another person. These take many different shapes and forms, all variations of the interview.

Since the interview is frequently impromptu or even casual in its occurrence, we make the mistake of concluding that we do not need specific training in this

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form of speech communication. But it is important that our plan for developing the speaking skills of our pupils should include a definite program of training in the particular skills used in these informal relationships. How to do this becomes both a question of pedagogy as well as one of the practical limitations of the total scope of the speech training curriculum. Assuming that our total objective is to develop the well-rounded individual and that we, therefore, want to train him in interview skills, this paper will concern itself primarily with the question of how to integrate the necessary instruction into the speech training program. We will proceed on the basis that the pupil should be made aware of the need for such training, the tools and principles involved, and the way to use these tools and principles.

THE NEED FOR TRAINING

Our whole society has become conscious of the importance of better understanding of each other in order to improve our relations in all the contacts that a complex society demands of us. These include our family discussions, our casual meetings with friends, our participation in clubs and organizations, and our countless contacts in the business and professional life in which we participate.

There is ample evidence among industrial and government leaders of an urgent concern for improving our ability to communicate and work with others. This takes the form of a plea for better human relations involving employer-employee, supervisor-employee, and labor-management situations. In order to achieve the desired improvement, industry is turning more and more to training its supervisors, executives, and salesmen in effective speaking, in interview techniques and in basic principles of psychology so that they can better analyze and deal with people. And they are looking for more of these qualities in the young men and women they employ. The challenge for meeting these needs rests squarely with the educational systems, and it should be met as early as possible in the development of young people.

THE TOOLS AND PRINCIPLES INVOLVED

An individual who is well grounded in the general basic principles of effective speaking and human relations will usually acquit himself well in an interview. In other words, although the interview makes necessary certain special demands and adaptations of the general principles, the participant is simply an effective speaker adapting to the particular situation. It is, therefore, obvious that the tools and principles involved start with those that are common to all speech communication. Then we would add these qualities for emphasis: *resourcefulness, adaptability, understanding others, tact, and ability to listen.*

The following table shows some principles applicable to all speaking and the special adaptation of these in the interview:

*Some Principles Applicable
to All Speaking*

PLANNING
ORGANIZING
DEVELOPING IDEAS
ANALYSIS OF LISTENER
SPEAKING QUALITIES
VISUAL AIDS
LISTENING

*Principles or Emphasis
Needed in the Interview*

FLEXIBILITY in plan and organization

ADAPTABILITY to other person's points
Needs particular emphasis
TACT is essential

Must let other person talk

It will be noted that most of the special skills needed in the interview are adaptations of speech skills in the direction of more flexibility. But flexibility and informality should not be mistaken for license to avoid application of the principles. It is just as essential (and sometimes more so) to plan and organize ideas and their development for the interview as for the public speech. The fact that flexibility is required usually means that more preparation is necessary in order to meet all contingencies. This must be impressed on the pupil, lest he feel that he can meet his informal speech requirements without preparation.

Thorough analysis of the listener, as well as the development of listening habits, are the important qualities to stress. A successful interview frequently turns on some point that is won because the other person's views were known thoroughly in advance. Frequently a point is won by listening and letting the other person talk.

Meeting objections is another important ability that requires a steady attitude of *conciliation* and diplomacy rather than one of argument and contention. Properly adapting and replying to points, questions, or objections requires extreme tact, a quality difficult to teach; but these suggestions can be followed in learning to handle the other person's point:

Principles of Conciliation in Meeting Points or Objections

1. Listen objectively and carefully
2. Analyze why the person is making this point
3. Concede or agree as much as you can
4. State the point clearly and fairly
5. Explain or state your position clearly
6. Support and develop your position
7. Speak softly and pleasantly

In the practice projects, the pupil's ability to use these steps and techniques should be observed and analyzed. Planning and preparing for the interview can be taught with certain systematic principles and tools in mind. The first step in planning is to determine what is to be accomplished. Then a careful analysis of the other person should be made which would include a knowledge of his background, education, family, affiliations, work or profession, interests and hobbies, and other pertinent facts. Then, with the objective of the interview clearly in mind, an outline of the course of the interview should be made. Most interviews go through a series of steps which should form the basis for the

outline. Frequently these are not followed in the actual conduct of the interview, yet the outline serves as a guide and pattern which keeps the discussion on a logical track. The following represents the steps:

Steps in the Interview

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| THE APPROACH | —Involves the physical setting and manner of getting started. |
| ATTENTION | —The opening remarks, greeting, common ground, and stating of purpose. (If this is to be done directly.) |
| NEED or PROBLEM
or DRAWING OUT | —Pointing out the situation, information needed, or problem to be solved. |
| SOLUTION | —Arriving at solution, plan, or action desired. |
| ACTION | —Pointing up the specific action or steps to be taken as result of the interview. |

TEACHING INTERVIEW SKILLS

Assuming that we are going to attempt to teach as much as we can of the tools and skills outlined above, the question of how best to accomplish this is our final and chief concern. In contemplating the teaching of any particular speech skills, it is well to keep in mind that *training in any general skills of effective speaking should result in the improvement in other more particular skills*. This is a fundamental principle of speech training which starts with the premise that effective speaking is effective speaking in whatever situation or setting the oral communication medium is used. In determining *how* best to effect speech training in a given case, we first must apply this premise then decide just how far we should go to set up projects that will show the application of the general principles to the specific skills wanted. In this case it is the skills of interviewing, and we have already pointed out what these skills involve.

If the pupil has just taken a course in effective speaking, we can assume that he will be a better interviewer than if he has not. We can also assume that he has learned the basic principles and can thus start with their application in the interview course. Since time and other limitations of curriculum planning must be considered, we should try to give training in the interview: (1) within the general course in effective speaking or public speaking; (2) within other subject-matter courses such as social science, history, and English; and (3) within a separate course in interviewing or informal speaking if the curriculum permits.

No attempt is made to show a complete course in interviewing, but the following types of practice projects after the background principles are taught are suggested. Interviews take so many forms—from casual conversation to the job application—that it is difficult to classify all of them, but projects should be set up with the objective of giving the pupil experience in a variety of situations. These projects should be executed in front of the class, probably at a table, as though the class were not present. They should be five to ten (or more) minutes in length, with ample time left for discussion and criticism.

Types of Practice Projects

1. *To develop pleasant relations*—Have two members of the class meet as though on the street and discuss items of current interest. The responsibility of both participants is to keep the discussion moving and in the interest of the other person.

2. *To explain*—Have one person assume the responsibility of calling on another with specific objective of making something clear.

3. *To seek information*—One person calls on another to seek information or facts, as in a press interview.

4. *To resolve conflict*—Assuming a point at issue, as in a supervisor-employee or labor-management dispute, have one person try to resolve the differences in the other person's mind.

5. *To sell or persuade*—Have one person attempt to sell a product or persuade the other person toward a point of view. This might include selling himself, as in a job interview.

In conducting these as practice projects, the person who wants to accomplish the objective is the one who does the major preparation for the interview. The other person prepares by trying to assume the situation at hand as a real life situation in which he presents the usual problems or obstacles to the interviewer. Role-playing becomes an important part of the projects.

CONCLUSION

We have attempted to review the place of and need for training in informal speaking, particularly the interview, in the high schools. We have indicated that the skills involved are largely adaptations of basic skills common to all effective speech communications, and we have suggested some practice projects. Time spent in this direction will surely result in more resourceful and better prepared high-school graduates who can be an important influence toward better human relations in all walks of life.

Storytelling

RUTH E. MOHR

Pershing High School, Detroit, Michigan

WHETHER we are nine or ninety, everyone thrills to the magic of "Once Upon a Time." Storytelling and listening to stories come as naturally to the teenager as they do to the five-year-old kindergarten child. Storytelling makes a unique tie between informal and formal speech in the fundamentals of a speech course for high school.

Before beginning a unit in storytelling, the high-school teacher must decide on some basic aims. What does it do for the pupil as a speaker? How does it help him in developing creativeness, adeptness at speech construction, con-

versationalism, poise, and personality? These were some of the aims pertinent to all speech training which it is thought possible to accomplish through storytelling. More specifically stated, they were: (1) to stimulate the pupil's creative imagination; (2) to develop fluent narrative ability, essential to good speech making; (3) to develop good conversational qualities; and (4) to facilitate freedom of bodily movement and variety in voice.

Using the above aims, I began a unit in storytelling for both my tenth- and eleventh-grade fundamentals of speech classes at Pershing High School in Detroit, Michigan. It was a natural tie between my informal and formal speech assignments.

I had in mind a variety of stories which the pupils might tell; such as (1) a children's story, (2) a teenage or adult story, (3) an original story, preferably a tall tale, (4) the most favored story told in a pupil's family, and (5) the favorite story told about a member of a pupil's family. However, believing the fairytale or folktale to be the easiest for a beginner to tell, I set out to create interest and set an example by telling my version of the popular English folktale, "The Hobyahs," which I have often used in professional storytelling (especially to children's groups).

When "little dog Turpi" unexpectedly "jumped out of the bag," the teenagers jumped with him and laughed good naturedly at their own empathy. When I told them that adults in the storytelling class at Wayne University (where I lecture once each term on storytelling) do the same thing, they began to show real interest. They actually asked to hear another children's story, so I told them "The Greedy Cat" or "The Cat and the Parrot," which are found, among other places, in Sara Cone Bryant's *How To Tell Stories to Children*. The first story had a bit of suspense and mystery in it and the second a pinch of humor.

Using these stories as examples, we outlined some qualifications of a good story for the small child. These included such things as: (1) a simple plot with few characters; (2) repetition of words, ideas, and rhythmical patterns; (3) rhythm; (4) clever phraseology; and (5) the use of the "magic three" found in many folk and fairy tales. Some other stories containing the magic three which we recalled easily were "The Three Bears," "The Three Pigs," "The Three Golden Hairs," and "Cinderella" where we find three daughters and three trips to the ball. You all know how often we make use of the magic three in speechmaking. Immediately, we discussed the fact that all of these qualifications, for obvious reasons, made folk or fairy stories, for the small child, very easy for the beginning storyteller to learn.

From these and our remembrance of other children's stories, we listed other characteristics that might be found in a story good for telling to the small child.

The continued list included: (1) suspense, surprise, and mystery; (2) humor; (3) action; (4) characterization; (5) lots of conversation without too much description; and (6) definite style. We decided that children especially enjoyed fantasy, the unusual experience, experiences like their own, and stories in which animals behaved as people and camouflaged a moral. After some discussion, we concluded that most of the above qualities are the same to be found in good adult stories.

Knowing, now, what to look for in a good story, the pupils came to a very important conclusion. They decided, and, very wisely, that the first prerequisite for choosing any story to tell was that the storyteller must *like* it.

Then the pupils were ready to hear a method or methods for learning a story. I discussed with them the procedure I had found most successful. First, the story must be read through several times, simply for enjoyment and to get the feeling of the story as a whole—to sense its mood and cohesiveness. Then, as the storyteller reads, he must visualize the story and see the various events or pictures in sequence. He must concentrate on learning the events or whole situations rather than on memorizing words. Many storytellers learn the first division—then the second—and then go back and pick up the two together—continually adding on an event or division until the whole story is learned. Some storytellers find it helpful to write or type out the story. Then, practice before a mirror is helpful for discovering the stranger or good expressive qualities the storyteller may display with his eyes, mouth, or other bodily movement. The storyteller wants to be sure that he is fully expressive bodily, without acting. He works for a full eye span, for instance, and yet is careful not to freeze into a nervous smile throughout a serious part of a story. But the "living mirror" of children's faces—"looking up, holding wonder like a cup" is the acid test. If your pupils can find a real live audience of children, it would be wonderful experience. Children are the strongest critics before whom a storyteller or speaker can stand.

They demand more in voice variety than most audiences. Here characterization comes to the fore as the storyteller takes now the voice of a giant and now the voice of a witch. (Incidentally, I give my classes examples of some of these voice changes.) Because of their love of action, children demand variety in rate, and that the storyteller be conversational if he would hold their interest. Thus, the storyteller must work for voice variety in learning his story.

After discussing how to choose and learn a story, we delved somewhat into the importance of the storyteller today and in the past. Among great living storytellers discussed (to the boys' delight) was Seumas McManus, famous writer of Irish folk and fairy tales and greatest living Irish Shawnee (storyteller). Bill Martin, a well-known American storyteller, writer of a variety

of children's books, and publisher of *The Tell Well Press*, was also talked about. Both of these men are connected with the National Storytellers League of which Detroit has a branch. I, being a member of both, acquainted the pupils with *Story Art*, the magazine of the National League. I also supplied them with children and adult stories from copies of this magazine. I put at their disposal *Stories To Tell to Children*, a very fine source for looking up good stories, story collections, and books on storytelling. It also lists stories by age groups, seasons, story types, etc. It may be secured from the Boys' and Girls' Department of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, for only one dollar.

Looking to the past, we found that the storyteller was held in much greater esteem than he is today. Ruth Sawyer's *The Way of the Storyteller* is an excellent reference for finding out about the fascinating life of the storyteller, who long ago was feted by kings in many countries of the world.

With all this background and assistance, the pupils were ready and eager to pick and tell their stories. The majority told children's stories. Some related favorite stories told in their families, sometimes about members of their families. Some told adult stories from the classics, short-story books, or magazines, which were first approved. Some told tall tales, and the more imaginative pupils delighted in telling excellent original tall tales. Something like this might have easily culminated in a Liar's Club in which each member would attempt to tell the tallest tale. Citations might even be given for the best tall tale. Other kinds of original tales that might appeal to teenage storytellers are stories of suspense, stories of fantasy, and "whodunits."

After enjoying the stories we shared together, and we did enjoy them, we discussed the kinds of things storytelling could do for the speaker. The benefits for the speaker, through storytelling, were found to be many. We found that we, as speakers, had learned the significance of mood and the importance of the good first sentence from the never failing magic and simplicity of "Once Upon a Time." We learned the power of empathy found in such stories as Wanda Gag's "Millions of Cats," during the telling of which children sway to the rhythm of the jingle:

Cats here, cats there,
Cats and kittens everywhere.
Hundreds of cats,
Thousands of cats,
Millions and billions and trillions of cats.

We learned to visualize and paint word pictures. We developed real aliveness and variety in voice through characterization and change of pitch and rate to hold interest. We learned the value of the pause for emphasis and surprise, the softening of the voice for mystery or the renewal of interest, and the

quickenings of the voice for showing swiftly moving events and for enlivening conversation. We found that we could increase our sincerity and develop more fully "the human touch" since even stories of plants and animals personified must ring true. We learned the importance of animated facial expression and of a full eye span of one's audience. We learned the value of gestures that are full and free and, at the same time, the uselessness of unnecessary and cramped gestures. Most important of all, we learned the significance of the use of the narrative in all speech making.

Looking back at the aims and then at the results of a unit in storytelling, I think any speech teacher must grant that storytelling can be an integral part of a successful speech course or program. Also, any speech teacher can teach such a unit. If she does not feel adequate in the telling of stories herself, to set an example, she may make use of some of the better storytelling records available in educational or public lending libraries. She may also have her classes listen to storytellers on the radio or television, for whom they might write critical analyses. She might want them to see filmstrips such as Coronet's ten minute "Describing an Incident," or filmstrips of the "American Folktale Series," "The Row Peterson Series," "Story Time Picture Tales," and "The Young American Series of Standard Fairy or Folktales."

She may also call in a member of her local storytellers league to set an example of good storytelling. As a member of the Detroit Storytellers League, I know that our members are always happy to donate their storytelling abilities to school groups if they are requested.

The Detroit Storytellers League, along with many other city leagues, has started junior story leagues of high-school pupils. Teenagers, who become adept at storytelling and enjoy it, can give much pleasure and service to their communities through storytelling to elementary schools, children's homes, hospitals, church groups, and even at their own clubs and gatherings.

Storytelling appeals to the emotions and touches the heart. It can help a speaker to get at the hearts of his listeners. James Stephens says in his "Crock of Gold," "I have learned that the head does not hear anything until the heart has listened. And what the heart knows today, the head will understand tomorrow."

Good narration grips the audience and helps the speaker to hold them in the palm of his hand for a magic moment and transport them to any place or time. The magic of "Once Upon a Time" can belong to you and your pupils. So help yourself to a unit in storytelling.

A Functional Dramatics Program

NINA J. BAKER

Elyria High School, Elyria, Ohio

OUR program in dramatics just grew—not in Topsy fashion, but in a truly functional way. It has grown out of the needs of the community and the desires of the pupils, limited only by the available time and physical strength of the director. The program is largely extracurricular, and (at the risk of sounding heretical to my colleagues in the field) this director likes it that way. Our scope is greater; we are not bound by curricular limitations or by a closing bell, and pupils are freer to choose dramatics as an activity. We do have a one-semester course in speech fundamentals and a course in oral interpretation. This latter course leads into the field of dramatics, since it places emphasis on the entertainment side of speaking. Naturally, those pupils who have shown a marked interest in dramatics will choose this course as a part of their senior-year curriculum. In our "Oral Interp" course, we prepare programs and one-act plays for special occasions and for community affairs. One group of the class personnel will prepare a Christmas program; another will devote its attention to a Washington's Birthday or a Lincoln Day program; and others will prepare material for Armistice Day, Tranksgiving, Mother's Day, *etc.* The activities of this class group provide the pupils with many fine experiences and fill a community need.

Our extracurricular program falls into three divisions: major productions, one-act plays, and the activities of the dramatics club and our troupe of National Thespians. The first of the two major productions of the year is the all-school play in November. For this, any pupil in the whole school—and we're a four-year high school—is eligible to try out. Not infrequently, freshmen win places in the cast. This is where we begin the development of pupil actors. Experience counts vitally in this work. By the time a talented pupil has taken part in three or four all-school plays and a number of incidental one-acts, he has gained a vast amount of poise, assurance, and acting technique. Right along with the early beginnings of acting come early beginnings of stagecraft. Those pupils who are interested in learning to run the show can get the same early start and work up to responsible crew positions. This opportunity to grow is the most important part of our whole program. Not only does it benefit the pupil, but it also makes for so much better presentation of plays that our audiences profit by it.

As a rule, the all-school play is heavy, serious, or at least thoughtful in nature. In recent years we have done *Joan of Lorraine*, *Our Town*, *The Traitor*, *Death Takes a Holiday*, *Night Must Fall*, and *Tomorrow the World*. For this project,

then, a play is chosen that will be stimulating and challenging—to the cast, production crews, and director. As a natural result, it will also be stimulating to the audience.

All proceeds of these all-school plays go into the dramatics fund to be used for supplies and new equipment. From this fund, also, we pay membership fees to National Thespians, defray expenses to such events as the National Dramatic Arts Conference, and charter busses for our annual or semi-annual theater party trips. Looking toward a new high-school auditorium, we have built up a fund of approximately \$1,200 for lighting equipment (or whatever seems most necessary when that time comes).

For the senior play in the spring we choose something light and gay; something in the nature of *You Can't Take It with You*, *Papa Is All*, *Best Foot Forward*, *Out of the Frying Pan*, *The Bishop Misbehaves*, or *The Late Christopher Bean*. (Many Pulitzer Prize and Ten Best of the Year plays are eminently suitable and rewarding for high-school production.) Because many of the graduating seniors have come up through the ranks and have learned and grown and profited by experience throughout their high-school careers, these plays are often our best productions. It is a real joy to see the responsibilities assumed and the sureness exhibited by these fourth-year pupils. (Proceeds from the senior play are used for a class gift to the school.)

We dramatics directors maintain that, in addition to other values, our activity builds character and develops a sense of responsibility. So, with us, horse-play and nonsense are out—right from the start. We have fun, but it grows out of our work; and our motto is, "A job well done is our reward." Workmanlike attitudes are our constant goal. On production nights, when the orchestra is warming up, the cast and crews assemble for a final word from the director, and they hear something like this: "From here on I can do nothing more for you. But you're ready; you know what to do and how to do it. It's your show! Good luck!" Then everyone takes his place, the director goes out front with the audience, and it is truly their responsibility. And they measure up!

Each year we present some one-acts, in addition to the one prepared in the oral interpretation class. Many are the uses for these: assemblies, community affairs, and play festivals. The ones that keep us the busiest are the community groups—churches, lodges, clubs, etc. They provide wonderful audiences and give to the pupils valuable experience and opportunities to serve their community. What matter if we do have to improvise our settings and play under inadequate lighting! Anyone who has participated in Thornton Wilder's *Our Town* knows that the imagination can supply almost anything!

We have, in the past, done considerable work in contests—had fun and thrills and gained something from those experiences. To the students who participated in them, contests provided the greatest excitement of their high

school careers and still occupy a large part of their remember-when" conversations. But contests are grueling, and so many of the same values can be achieved by festivals that many directors prefer them.

Our program also includes two dramatics organizations: the Players' Club and our troupe of National Thespians. Membership in these organizations is earned. We use the Thespian point system right from the beginning, but any director can make up his own point rating for the various jobs connected with the production of a play. With us, membership to Players' Club comes first, this being gained on only half as many points as are needed for Thespians. Meetings of the two organizations are usually held jointly—in fact, Thespians is actually just an inner core of Players' Club. Programs are varied, with scenes from plays, make-up demonstrations, visiting speakers, reports, and discussions being among the usual ones. But the highlight of the year is the "theater party." Each year we travel to Cleveland for a professional production at the Hanna Theater or for an equally "professional" one at the Play House, and sometimes we trek to a not-too-distant college for one of its theater events. Former pupils speak most glowingly of these experiences.

On the day of the final assembly of the school year, when awards and recognitions are presented, Thespians of the school come in for their share. They receive varied tokens for point-accumulation and as Honor Thespians. There is no doubt that one of the most-coveted symbols is the dramatics ring, presented by the director as her personal award to the graduate who has contributed most to high-school dramatics and who has most faithfully striven to attain and uphold the ideals for which we stand.

Public Speaking and General Education

JAMES N. HOLM

Kent State University

EARLY in the war I was appointed one of a group of people in our community charged with the responsibility of setting up the procedure of gasoline rationing. None of us knew anything about the system and its operation, and so on an appointed evening I gathered with about two hundred other novices from all parts of the country in the parlor of a local church. We were to hear an expert from regional headquarters of the Office of Price Administration describe the plan of rationing and outline our duties. That night two hundred people each wasted at least two hours of valuable time, for so poorly did the "expert" speak that all of us were more confused when he was finished than we had been at the start. A week later another man from the OPA office

returned, and this time the plan for rationing gasoline was clearly explained. With the same message one man failed, the other succeeded.

The purposes of training in public speaking are most commonly enunciated in terms of benefit to be derived by the pupil. This example of four hundred wasted hours, two hundred exasperated people, and a week's delay in a program important to the prosecution of the war should emphasize the fact that training in public speaking has important outcomes for society itself—outcomes so vital that no program of general education should be considered complete unless it instructs American youth to be competent in speaking to groups—to be ably communicative. One incompetent person can quickly and thoroughly render useless the efforts of a group. Effective speech is a great medium by which social co-operation and adaptation are brought about, and it is, therefore, indispensable to society that its members speak well.

For twenty years I have been teaching public speaking—in high-school classes, in college and university classes, and in classes for adults. It is the adult classes which demonstrate the need for and function of effective public speaking since the mature student seeks training to perform better those functions which experience proves he must perform. Into my adult classes have come businessmen, lawyers, doctors, dentists, engineers, salesmen, housewives, industrialists, union leaders, editors, teachers, scientists—men and women from all walks of life and of all ages. And from thousands of individual cases conclusions can be generalized concerning the values of training in public speaking for the many, values which can and should be part of the aim of any program of general education in the secondary schools.

Thinking of public speaking, then, not only in the limited sense of "making a speech," but also in the broader sense of talking effectively to people wherever they may be gathered in groups—in churches, lodges, sales meetings, social organizations, forums, committees, union meetings, conventions, or political gatherings—let us list the functions and values of effective speech. And let us begin where education begins—with the individual.

NECESSARY TO PERSONAL COMPETENCE

Everyone should be able to speak well because effective public speaking is necessary to personal competence. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the area of vocational activity, for thousands of men and women seek training in public speaking to make them more fit for the jobs they hold or to prepare them for better jobs and higher pay. Evidence that skill in public speaking is considered an important business asset is the amount of time and effort devoted to speech training by business and industry. Says John S. Knight, President and Editor of the *Akron Beacon Journal*, "I have found experience in public speaking to be one of the most valuable assets any man can have." Certainly, any

education which seeks to prepare the pupil for vocational competence cannot ignore training in public speaking.

But vocation is not the only area of competency in which skill in speaking is a distinct asset. Another important segment of the life of the individual is community activity. Again the testimony of hundreds of adults enrolling in speech classes reveals that they seek increased ability to take part in and lead their community organization—the Scouts, the Rotary or Kiwanis Clubs, the church, the PTA, the Grange, the lodge, or the social group. Take the case of Robert K —, of Conneaut, Ohio. He was elected to one of the offices of a fraternal order to which he belonged, an honor which he deeply appreciated. But when he discovered that the work of the office demanded that he make on the average of two talks a month to audiences of forty or fifty people, he promptly resigned! After taking a course in public speaking, he again sought the office and was re-elected. This time he was able to fulfill the demands of the office with confidence. Success story? Yes—but only one of many told the instructor of public speaking.

There are other areas of competence in which skill in speaking to groups is of worth to any individual, but let us look next at the corollary values which accrue from training in speech. Not the least of such values is the effect on the person himself in terms of increased confidence, self-respect, courage, and poise. Not long ago, one of my colleagues in speech met a college student who had been absent from his class for more than two weeks. "I was simply afraid to come to class—afraid to get up in front of the others" was the student's explanation. "Every day I would come as far as the classroom door, and then go over to the Hub for a cup of coffee. I'd just sit there with the coffee and hate myself." Persuaded to return to class, that student, a war veteran, finally succeeded in mastering his fears and passing the course. The increased courage and self-confidence of such students is one of the solid satisfactions of teaching speech.

NECESSARY TO EFFICIENCY IN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

Skill in speaking is of value to the individual, but beyond that it is necessary to the efficient functioning of business and industry. Good will depends upon it, sales depend upon it, and so do reports, orders, instructions, inspiration, policy determination, and a host of other functions of our economic system. General Motors has long taught public speaking at the General Motors Institute in Detroit, but recently it has contracted with a famous commercial course to offer the training to 80,000 of its employees. A recent survey of in-service industrial training revealed that ninety-four per cent of the industries surveyed maintained a training program, and that, of these, fifty per cent are teaching speech. Included in this category were such industries as Johnson and Johnson,

Chrysler Corporation, Erie Railroad, Monsanto Chemicals, and International Harvester.

Nor is the need for effective speaking in business limited to huge corporations; even small organizations suffer from the amount of poor speaking which occurs. Here are the words of Heskett Kuhn, President of the Hardware and Supply Company of Akron, Ohio. Referring to the weekly sales meetings of his organization, at which sales representatives of his supplying manufacturers appear, he says, "Seventy-five per cent of our meetings should not be held. There is one of two reasons for their failure. Either the speaker does not know his subject or, if he does, he lacks the ability to put it over." Multiply the experience of this one concern by the thousands of similar concerns across the nation, the need for better speaking in business and industry is plain. Surely a system of general education has some responsibility for the competence of those who operate the nation's economic system.

NECESSARY TO THE WELFARE OF THE AMERICAN COMMUNITY

Effective public speaking is necessary to the welfare of the American community. I have already pointed out that hundreds of individuals seek training in public speaking in order to participate competently in community enterprises. Conversely, every community needs and seeks for positions of responsibility and leadership, people who are articulate and who have the ability to talk to groups. American society is highly organized. Every community is a complex of organizations—business, industry, labor, society, education, sports, religion, conservation, and professional. Akron, Ohio, for instance, supports between three and four thousand listed organizations. A quick survey of my own city of Kent revealed forty for women alone. And every organization must have officers, leaders, chairmen, and speakers. No educational system could perform a more important function than that of training our youth to serve the community through its organizational activities.

NECESSARY TO THE WELFARE OF THE NATION

Finally, effective public speaking is necessary to the welfare of the nation. I related at the beginning of this article an example of the ineptness of one government worker and the consequences. But the example is not isolated; it is only too representative. Referring to budget hearings before the Appropriation Committees of the House and Senate, Jessie Haver Butler of Georgetown University has written, "One department sent a certain official year after year who spoke so badly that the members of the Committee could not hear him and, when they did hear him, they could not understand what he was trying to say." Mrs. Butler described congressional committee hearings on important pending legislation, before which appear interested government officials and elected officers representing large and important groups of citizens. It is typical that in

such meetings, vital to the national welfare, the witnesses fail completely in the presentation of their viewpoints, and, consequently, those viewpoints exert little influence on the development of legislation. Mrs. Butler sums up her experience in Washington in the following words: "There is a block on the track of Democracy because the art of presenting ideas—one of the most subtle of all arts—so as to affect the thinking of people is still not taken seriously by those who are directly concerned in making democracy work."

But it is not only in the process of legislation, nor in the functioning of members of the executive department, that effective speaking is necessary to our democracy and is too frequently missing. Our democracy, as a whole, depends also upon an enlightened electorate—a mass of citizens who talk over matters affecting their welfare as a nation until public opinion crystallizes into sound national policy. It is not enough that our people be educated, for knowledge is bottlenecked by the tongue-tied. Their education must be made functional as they put it to use in discussing and debating the problems which they face. This takes training in public speaking, training in talking to groups. Such skill is not inherited; it must be developed. Out of sheer national necessity, then, training in public speaking should be part of the education of every citizen.

I have tried to show that training in public speaking possesses real values for all individuals and, through the individual, for our economic system, for our communities, and for our nation. If a system of general education hopes to prepare American youth to function at its best, it cannot escape the necessity of offering that training. But one other observation needs to be made. Because our nation needs a continuous growth of new leadership, because we depend for our new leadership not upon an elite class but upon all classes of youth, and because one of the functions of leadership is that of speaking clearly and convincingly, it follows that all youth should be trained to speak in public lest the wellsprings of American leadership dry up. In this nation we offer to every youth the opportunity to become a leader. Can any system of general secondary education offer him preparation for less?

Discussion and Debate in Life Activities

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DOES what we teach in our high-school and college classes in discussion and debate and in our interschool forensic programs prepare students for life activities? To answer this question we must first consider the larger question, "What is the place of discussion and debate in a democratic society?" Studies in discussion and debate are not ends within themselves. They must offer

training for something; for situations involving co-operative deliberation and advocacy found in actual life situations. Unless needs exist for trained people in such situations in a democratic society, we cannot justify the time and effort spent on these subjects and activities.

What are the life situations of co-operative deliberation and advocacy that call for people skilled in these processes? Consider the following situation typical of the democratic process. Recently a southern University appointed a faculty committee of seven professors to study the problem of the semester, quarter, and term systems for arranging the school calendar. At the first meeting of the committee, the members soon discovered that they lacked sufficient factual information on which to proceed. The chairman appointed different members of the committee to conduct investigations on the problem. One committeeman was appointed to study the catalogues of colleges of corresponding size and similar purposes. Another was assigned the task of writing for the reports of committees of colleges that had recently conducted such studies. Others were assigned to study articles in professional journals related to the problem. Each member was asked to report at a later meeting.

Six months later the committee members met again to report the findings of their studies. After all factual data were pooled the question arose, "What specific recommendation shall we make?" Naturally, differences of opinion arose. Each specific proposal received careful consideration as related to the criteria previously set up to judge the solution. With the possible solutions before the group, the meeting adjourned to permit each member time to study the various proposals.

At the next meeting of the committee, one member moved that the committee recommend a continuation of the quarter system. Other members had different ideas. After each had his say and the advantages and disadvantages of each subsequent proposal were weighed, the chairman called for a vote. The motion carried favoring the quarter system.

At a later meeting of the faculty Senate—the faculty administrative body—the chairman of the committee read the report. A sharp debate ensued. After all had been heard, a motion on the committee's recommendation passed. The recommendation then came up at the next meeting of the entire faculty where the proposal was again debated and adopted.

Thus a democratic body faced and solved a problem. The solution was made possible by use of two essential tools of any democratic process—discussion and debate. Discussion was used throughout the deliberations of the committee in its attempt to answer, "What should be done?" Debate was necessary to reach the final decision before the Senate and faculty meetings when the proposition was, "Should the committee's recommendation be adopted?" Without discus-

sion and debate, the solution would not have been possible. Without either, democratic bodies could not function.

There are three wide classifications of democratic functions which must utilize discussion and debate. The first is our courts of law. Our courts provide the nearest approach to justice that we have been able to devise. They make possible a means for liberty loving people to settle their own disputes. Such people believe the courts, with all their inefficiency, superior to dictatorial decrees by one or a small group. Courts of law make liberal use of both discussion and debate. Recently a citizen was summoned by the sheriff to serve on the jury panel for the week. While the judge was in the process of instructing the members of the jury panel about their rights and obligations, some lawyers came into the courtroom and called the judge aside. Upon returning to the jury panel, the judge announced that the case on docket had been settled and that the jury was dismissed. The litigants had settled their differences outside of court by use of discussion. Without discussion the trial would have been inevitable. The compromise was effected by lawyers skilled in co-operative deliberation. Numerous cases are settled outside the court through the methods taught in high-school and college discussion classes.

Some legal disputes cannot be settled short of the situation which calls forth debate. So long as people govern themselves, conflict is inevitable. Under these conditions, a person involved in conflict has the right to have his side of the controversy presented to a jury which he has helped select. To withhold this right is to deny the democratic process. Unless the advocates on both sides are skilled, injustice may result. High-school discussion and debate programs afford invaluable training for this life situation.

A second important field where discussion and debate perform essential functions is in our legislative and policy making assemblies. Legislative bodies provide the nearest approach to securing equitable public policies that we have found. The other possibilities are anarchy on one end of the continuum scale and dictatorship on the other, both untenable in a free society. Anarchy is characterized by skepticism, doubt, confusion, and disorder—the absence of organized authority. Dictatorship is characterized by force, orders, commands, and blind obedience—complete authority. In both extremes discussion and debate have no part, for they are not needed. Democracy, the common sense middle ground, makes use of both discussion and debate for they are the principal methods by which people govern themselves. Many public policies can be settled in conferences, through agreement, by utilizing discussion principles. In other instances, the disagreement may be too intense to permit agreement through discussion. Under these circumstances, the best case for each side must be heard before the body designated to settle the problem can make an intelligent decision. Unless skilled advocates represent each side, hasty and ill-advised

measures may be adopted. High-school and college classes in debate provide training in organizing thoughts, weighing evidence, and analyzing problems so essential for decision in policy determining groups.

A third necessary field for discussion and debate may be found in the everyday activities of the citizens in a democracy. Note the speech teacher presenting his case for a new recording machine, the minister advocating the adoption of the church budget, the superintendent presenting his proposal for expansion to the school board, and the housewife presenting her views on the need for a new refrigerator. The citizens in a democracy get much of what they want through conference meetings and private conversations by utilizing discussion principles. Failing by the use of these methods, the alternative in a free society consists of presenting the case for your proposal before the body which has the power of decision. Debate training for such situations is invaluable.

Walter Lippman sums up the matter in these words: "We may picture the true spirit of freedom as existing in a place like a court of law, where witnesses testify and are cross-examined, where the lawyer argues against the opposing lawyer before the same judge and in the presence of one jury."¹

McBurney and Hance re-emphasize this position as follows: "Legislative, political, and judicial debates occupy the time and attention of some of our greatest minds and affect the lives and well-being of millions of people. . . . We believe that any realistic conception of democracy must admit a place for the trained advocate."²

High-school courses in discussion and debate not only provide useful training for a democracy, they also provide an absolutely necessary training. Discussion and debate are synonymous with democracy. Without either, democracy could not function.

¹ Lippman, Walter. "The Indispensable Opposition," *Atlantic*, August, 1939, p. 108.

² McBurney, James H., and Hance, Kenneth G. *The Principles and Methods of Discussion*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1939. P. 277.

CHAPTER V

WE HELP THE SPEECH AND
HEARING HANDICAPPED

Helping Pupils With Speech and Hearing Problems

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REGARDLESS of location, size, or wealth, the high school exists to help all pupils more ably to meet the demand of present and future society. The school administrator is constantly faced with two jobs: *first*, to meet the needs of the present crop of youngsters within his present set up and, *second*, to develop, expand, and enrich the school facilities.

Speech is one of the major methods, if not the chief method, of manipulating society. The school must, therefore, provide the means whereby this tool may be sharpened. If the school is to help all pupils, special provisions must be made for those with speech and/or hearing problems. Regardless of location, size, or wealth, the school can provide some help within the existing facilities, and plans for expansion and enrichment of the speech program must include this handicapped group too. In developing or evaluating speech services an administrator will ask:

1. How many pupils have special speech problems?
2. What are their speech problems?
3. How can they be located?
4. How are they progressing socially and scholastically?
5. What special adjustments have been provided?
6. What better program can the present staff and facilities offer?
7. What long-term plans should the school make for more adequately meeting the needs of these pupils?

HOW MANY CHILDREN HAVE SPEECH OR HEARING PROBLEMS?

Enough surveys have been carried out that the following data are rather well established. One in every hundred pupils stutters so severely that it will be a social, professional, and economic hazard to him in adulthood. Three to four per cent of the school population have a twenty decibel or greater hearing loss and are in need of specialized instruction. Data not so well established would suggest that one per cent of these are so handicapped that a hearing aid or specialized instruction in classes for the deaf is indicated.

Conservative estimates from various surveys show that five per cent are in need of individualized teaching by a trained therapist because of articulatory defects. Probably two per cent of these will be very serious cases and include that group who have organic problems such as cleft palate, cerebral palsy, dental malocclusions, and seriously retarded speech usually labeled "baby talk" in high school. The other three per cent will have very obvious inaccuracies as lisping, substitutions as "w" for "l," or foreign language influences, *etc.*, not due to physical abnormalities. One per cent will have voice problems in need of special speech help.

With the above data, let us look at the average high school of five hundred pupils. You will probably find five stutterers, twenty hearing handicapped, five of whom will be so seriously handicapped that they either should wear an aid or are totally deaf. There will be twenty-five serious articulation cases and included among these will perhaps be a cleft palate, cerebral palsied, or other seriously physically handicapped speech problem. Five will have voice problems that must be helped through speech drill. If you have not discovered these pupils, look for them. These data are gleaned from the most conservative studies. If you really do not have this number, your school will truly be an exception.

HOW CAN YOU LOCATE THEM?

Your teachers will have identified the most obvious, but large numbers have learned to keep quiet, mumble, and hide their problems by the time they reach adolescence. A questionnaire to the teachers will inform you of the serious ones and will also reveal the teachers' knowledge of the problem. Many universities and state departments will survey your student body at little or no financial cost. They will identify the types of cases.

Once they are located, a thorough study should be made of their school progress, their personality, and social behavior. The withdrawn shy child, the boisterous nuisance, and the failure are frequently the product of long-standing speech or hearing problems.

SUGGESTIONS FOR A STARTING POINT

The greatest needs of the speech handicapped as well as of any other handicapped are his acceptance as a person and an understanding of his problem. Special help follows this. This understanding and acceptance will come when his fellow pupils and teachers understand his problems. No matter how small the school, or how mediocre the faculty, a general orientation program can be carried out. All teachers teach speech directly or indirectly, and all pupils are influenced by the present program, either positively or negatively. Philosophies and techniques used in teaching the handicapped are good for all and faculties

will not waste the time spent in gaining further knowledge. In-service teacher training is welcomed when democratically conducted.

Universities and speech centers will be glad to seize the opportunity to discuss such topics as stuttering, articulation disorders, hearing aids, lip reading, cleft palate, *etc.*, with the teachers and community organizations. If specialists are not available, there is enough literature on the market that faculties can review this together and at least eradicate some of the wrong approaches and old-wives' tales currently popular. After the faculty has become oriented in speech and speech problems, a definite drive should be made to create a general awareness of speech and the classroom's atmosphere conducive to good speech.

With recent nationwide publicity of cerebral palsy, cleft palate, hearing losses, *etc.*, increasing numbers of speech handicapped pupils are remaining in high school. Life is more comfortable for them and their friends when there is general understanding of speech. The high-school pupils are the potential parents. As parents they will be faced with the speech development of the next generation or may even have a cerebral palsied, cleft palate, or other speech handicapped child. An awareness of speech development, speech problems, and speech refinements would eradicate the superstitions and do much toward the prevention of stuttering and oral inaccuracies in tomorrow's pupils. It would promote an acceptance and tolerance of the severely handicapped in the present generation and open new career horizons, as well as give each an opportunity to establish better speech. To initiate such a speech program each department can contribute—

Science

Sound and amplification is a common topic in the science class. This should be extended to include the function of hearing and the hearing aid. Each high school should have several pupils with aids and many will have relatives or friends with hearing handicaps. Everyone should know the advantages and limitations of a hearing aid. A special speech teacher or a good hearing aid salesman will be glad to demonstrate the aid. Each member of the class should have an opportunity to listen with and examine an instrument. A few basic lessons in lip reading may be given to create understanding. Lip reading is not a mysterious language but is readily understood and is used by all.

Health

For many years, pupils have been studying about the digestive, respiratory, and circulatory systems. How we speak and how we hear are equally fascinating topics. This may include the study of the anatomy and how it functions as each of the forty-three English speech sounds are made. Here, too, the pupils will be interested in an orientation in the causes and rehabilitations of cerebral

palsy, stuttering, cleft palate, hearing losses, voice problems, *etc.* This need not be detailed but should be inclusive enough to build clear concepts concerning these abnormalities. Health habits which will insure correct care of the ear, use of the voice, and adequate breath control should be established.

Physical Education

Physical education classes offer the speech handicapped a real challenge. Many of these pupils have poor physical carriage, no sense of rhythm, and inadequate voice because of inhibitions. Particular attention should be given them. Here they should have the opportunity to learn to dance, give short direct concise instructions, and, through play and drill, learn to relax and enjoy the company of others. Each should be encouraged to try to excel in one sport or skill.

Music

Most of the voice problems in high-school pupils are due to emotional inadequacy and adolescent voice change. The music class and musical activities as in physical education offer opportunities to establish breath control, rhythmic patterns, and group participation. Precise articulation too is required and a study of the phonetic elements may be made during this period. A study of the changes in the adolescent voice should be made and good voice hygiene practiced. Open discussion is healthy.

Speech Class

Perhaps the English or speech class should assume the major responsibility in developing correct articulation and pleasing speech, giving special help to the handicapped. There is a place in the program for the specialist. The classroom teacher cannot be expected to give time or know procedures to help the seriously physically handicapped; however, as the class studies together, the pupil with the serious impairment will gain much. He can learn the standards of acceptable speech and receives much drill in auditory discrimination.

Here too special emphasis can be given to dramatics, oral interpretation, choral speech, *etc.* The speech impaired should participate in these with additional drill periods, special helps, and careful selection of materials. They should not be by-passed in these activities.

Social Studies

In all probability no non-speech class offers as many and diversified opportunities in speech as the social study classes. Here group discussions, debates, dramatizations, and special reports should be daily practice. Producing "quiz kids" is an outmoded method of teaching. Each pupil with a speech problem should be given special attention in these classes. He should not be permitted to withdraw or keep quiet when called upon. With just a little special help, he too can contribute.

In planning the speech handicapped pupils' program, it is good if a guidance counselor, psychologist, or speech therapist helps with his registration. These specialists will know the teachers who will co-operate in a program to develop the total pupil. Where these specialists are not available, the school administrator should select sections of classes with teachers who understand the whole child.

Following the best possible choice of curriculum and teachers, one teacher should take the responsibility of seeing that the pupil learns dancing, a sport, and has some special talent or social attribute developed. He should be made to feel he is important. He must be encouraged to participate in the school's extracurricular activities.

All high schools should employ a speech therapist. In long range planning no administrator can afford not to plan for one; however, without complete understanding of the problem, only a minimum amount of help is received for money and service rendered. In summary all schools can do something about children with speech problems. Procedures to follow are:

1. Discover the pupils.
2. Orient the teachers in speech problems.
3. Create a school atmosphere that is conducive to good speech.
4. Orient all pupils in speech problems.
5. Each teacher assume some responsibility for direct teaching of speech.
6. Provide general speech classes for all.
7. Provide guidance service for the pupil.
8. Provide special speech therapy.

The Hearing Program

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THE hearing program at the Washington Irving High School came into existence as a very natural outgrowth and extension of modern educational theory and practice. If the purpose of education in a democratic society is to assure each child such educational services as will permit maximum growth—physically, emotionally, intellectually, and socially—then the development of a hearing program in a secondary school becomes an educational necessity. There is no question about the fact that the acoustically handicapped child exists in our secondary schools and the existence of the child requiring specialized services in order to attain maximum potential demands the creation of those specialized services.

In many ways the acoustically handicapped child has been a relatively neglected child. The disability is not visible, is not dramatic, and the behavior

characteristics of an acoustically handicapped child can very easily be ascribed to a more dramatic disturbance; namely, a psychological or emotional one. Testing programs to discover the hard of hearing child have been haphazard, infrequent, and in many cases inaccurate. There has been an unwillingness on the part of educational authorities to assume responsibilities for the total program. This divided responsibility and lack of co-ordination has placed into separate hands the responsibility for essential parts of the total program. The medical, educational, rehabilitation, vocational, and psychological parts of the program must, as far as possible, be co-ordinated and followed up by a single agency. This does not mean that the school as a co-ordinating agency would have to do all these things. The school, however, must assume responsibility for the total program since it assumes responsibility for the education of the whole child. If we are to prepare the acoustically handicapped individual to become a useful member of the community in which he lives and a useful citizen of a changing dynamic society, if we are to prepare the pupil to live a happy, useful, and fruitful life as an individual, then we must constantly hold before us the picture of the acoustically handicapped pupil as, first of all, a child with all of the needs of the other children and, then, a child with special needs.

The first problem of course is to find the pupils who are to be the recipients of the specialized training. The procedures set forth for testing are those which are used at the present time in our school. As testing instruments and procedures are developed, modifications will be made in the testing program. In Washington Irving High School, each pupil in the school is tested every year by means of the phonograph audiometer test using two digit numbers. The papers are scored at the nine level and retests are given at the same sitting. Prior to this year, those pupils found deficient on the retest were referred to Junior High School 47, the Board of Education school for deaf and hard of hearing pupils in New York. Here the pupil was given an otological examination and an individual pure tone audiometric test. A referral slip was sent back to the school indicating the extent of hearing loss, if any, and recommendations for the school; such as, favorable seating in class, lip reading, speech correction work, and where it was indicated a hearing aid was suggested and provisions made for having the pupil fitted with the aid best suited to him.

Beginning in September, 1951, the procedure was changed to include a screening audiometric pure-tone test prior to sending the pupil to Junior High School 47. The purpose of this screening test was to cut down, if possible, on the number of pupils sent for the clinical check up. All pupils who are found to have a hearing deficiency have their names recorded in both the health education department and in the speech department. From among these pupils, the speech department selects those for the hearing program. Pupils who are found to have either a mild loss of hearing, less than twenty decibels in the better

ear, are called to come for a brief explanation of the nature of the hearing loss, the hygiene of the ear, and favorable seating in class. We also attempt to direct these pupils toward greater concentration and attention in class and well-prepared work at home as aids to educational success. If they have by reason of a hearing loss acquired speech errors in articulation or voice pattern, they are assigned to a speech clinic. They are followed up for school success and are sent to Junior High School 47 every year for check up. Where medical care seems indicated, it is suggested that the parent take the child to a competent otologist or to any of the numerous facilities in the clinics of the hospitals of the city.

Those pupils whose referral slips from Junior High School 47 read "lip reading" are placed into Clinic H, a clinic for the hard of hearing pupil who has a loss of more than twenty decibels in the better ear. This group meets three times each week where the program consists of lip reading, speech correction, and personal guidance. The failure rate of this group prior to the establishment of the hearing clinic was exceedingly high, averaging one and a half failures per pupil. Only one of these pupils had ever worn a hearing aid and this pupil had long since discarded it. Four of the fifteen pupils in the class are considered behavior problems, sufficient to warrant the attention of the dean. The situation is now improved, but it still leaves room for greater improvement in all these areas.

The following activities are a regular part of the work done with the pupils in Clinic H.

1. *Medical Attention*—It is suggested to the pupil and the parent that medical care frequently can result in an improved hearing situation. Medical care is also suggested as a preventive and hygiene measure to retain the hearing at its present level.

2. *Auditory Training*—Wherever a hearing aid is indicated by the referral slip from Junior High School 47 or from an otologist, the pupil is referred to New York State Rehabilitation Service, the League for the Hard of Hearing, or to Junior High School 47 for assistance in securing the proper hearing aid. After the pupil has secured a hearing aid, a program of auditory training is undertaken, based upon the program used so effectively by the Aural Rehabilitation Division of the United States Navy, of which the author was a member. This portion of the program, during which the pupil learns to use the hearing aid most effectively, is of great importance in the total picture. It increases tremendously the possibility of successful and continued use of a hearing aid.

3. *School Services*—In connection with the problems of school success, a program of teacher education has been undertaken by means of reading material and faculty conferences. A greater understanding of the problems of these pupils has resulted in a more understanding teacher-pupil relationship and has established hearing impairment as a factor to be investigated in the behavior

problems of some of our pupils. Tutorial services have been made available to the pupil, courses have been selected in which there is the greatest possibility of success, and drop-outs from this group have been reduced to a minimum. Psychological and guidance services of our own guidance department and the bureau of child guidance of the Board of Education are used whenever such use would help in the total problem of the child. In terms of after-school training, many of our pupils have been referred to the Vocational Rehabilitation of the New York State Department of Education for assistance to prepare for a job which they are capable of filling successfully.

The program for the deaf pupil is somewhat different. I can speak only from my own experience, but the deaf pupil has presented neither a serious educational problem nor a behavior problem. It is true that assistance in school subjects is rendered by tutors and by pupil guides in the classes which these deaf pupils attend, but they work hard, co-operate, and present no serious or disturbing behavior problem. The group I have at present is a cheerful and alert group which mingles freely with other pupils and successfully passes all its subjects. One of these members has just been elected to *Arista*, our honorary scholastic and service organization, and another will soon be a candidate for admission. The size of the clinic for deaf pupils, or Clinic D, at present is six. A major portion of the work of these pupils is language and vocabulary activity of all kinds. Their subject teachers are constantly supplying us with new words they are going to use. We work with these words for meaning, for lip reading, for proper pronunciation. We develop new words for old ideas. We learn to converse using the free idiomatic expressions of those around us. Work in lip reading is carried on constantly as well as work in speech. The work in speech is formal drill in correction as well as conversation, reading, dramatics, and discussion. These youngsters are also referred for vocational assistance, and within the school their teachers are chosen from among those members of the faculty who enjoy the experience of working with the exceptional child. There is no selectivity in the choice of their subjects with the exception of the exclusion, up to this point, of foreign languages and stenography. In Clinic D, we now have an art major, an art academic major, a dressmaking major, a home economics major, and two youngsters who have not as yet selected their course of study.

There are many things we still must learn about the deaf pupil in a hearing school, but we feel that we are making a beginning with this program. Always before us as we work to develop programs for the exceptional child, we must bear in mind the responsibility of the community in a democracy for the well-being of its children and for their growth and development into adulthood and competent citizenship in the community.

CHAPTER VI

WE TEACH SPEECH FOR
DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

Speech Education—A Contribution to Democratic Leadership Training

JACK MATTHEWS

THE presence of the term "leadership" in the vocabulary of the educator, the psychologist, and the sociologist as well as the industrialist and the military specialist suggests the existence of some specific entity, quality, or characteristics. However, leadership is defined in many different ways. Krout¹ speaks of the quality leadership in contrast to followership and suggests that leadership is a quality which is either absent or present in a given individual. On the other hand Flemming,² Brown,³ and Patten⁴ consider leadership as a characteristic which is present in varying amounts in various people. Cowley⁵ has defined the leader as "an individual who is moving in a particular direction and who succeeds in inducing others to follow after him." In Pigors's⁶ definition, leadership is considered as a "process of mutual stimulation which, by successful interplay of relevant differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause." These definitions indicate that leadership has meant many things to many investigators. A more complete discussion of the variety of definitions of leadership can be found in Matthews,⁷ Morris and Seeman,⁸ and Smith.⁹

A variety of techniques have been developed for measuring leadership—leadership, of course, as it is viewed by each investigator. Shartle,¹⁰ Stogdill and Shartle,¹¹ Katz, Maccoby and Morse¹² have described some of the proced-

¹ Krout, M. H. *Introduction to Social Psychology*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1942.

² Flemming, E. G., "A Factor Analysis of the Personality of High-School Leaders," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1935, 19: 596-605.

³ Brown, M., "Leadership Among High-School Pupils," *Teachers College Record*, 1934, 35: 324-326.

⁴ Patten, M. B., "Leadership Among Preschool Children," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1933, 27: 430-440.

⁵ Cowley, W. H., "Three Distinctions in the Study of Leaders," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1928, 23: 144-157.

⁶ Pigors, P. J. W. *Leadership or Domination*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 1935.

⁷ Matthews, J. *Research on the Development of Valid Situational Tests of Leadership*. Pittsburgh: American Institute for Research. 1951.

⁸ Morris, R. T., and Seeman, M., "The Problem of Leadership: An Interdisciplinary Approach," *American Journal of Sociology*, 1950, 56: 149-155.

⁹ Smith, H. L., and Krueger, L. M., "A Brief Summary of Literature on Leadership," *Bulletin of the School of Education Indiana University*, Vol. 9, September 1933.

¹⁰ Shartle, C. L., "Leadership and Executive Performance," *Personnel*, 1949, 25: 370-380.

¹¹ Stogdill, R. M., and Shartle, C. L., "Methods of Determining Patterns of Leadership Behavior in Relation to Organization, Structure, and Objectives," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1948, 32: 286-291.

¹² Katz, D.; Maccoby, M.; and Morse, N. C. *Productivity, Supervision, and Morale*. Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan. 1950.

ures for indirectly observing leadership on the job. Farago¹³, Harris¹⁴, and *Assessment of Men*¹⁵ describe the use of situational tests for measurement of leadership in a military setting. The general procedure is to create a group situation in which observers may evaluate the behavior of an individual as he reacts with others in the performance of a group task. Situational tests have also been used in non-military settings. There is evidence to show that leadership behavior can be observed in a reliable manner in situational tests involving not only discussion type situations but also a variety of situations—clerical, construction, etc.

If leadership behavior can be measured in a number of ways, one might logically ask whether leadership is a general "trait" or whether it is specific to certain tasks and situations. The research evidence suggests a slight tendency for those who are leaders in one situation to be leaders in other types of situations. However, Carter has pointed out, "There is also a tendency for some people to show leadership more specifically in certain families of tasks than in others."¹⁶ This suggests the necessity of observing leadership behavior in several types of situations and particularly in situations similar to those in which leadership is to be shown later.

Numerous attempts have been made to determine factors which might be associated with leadership. Many studies compared leaders and non-leaders on such traits as height, weight, intelligence, age, initiative, introversion, extroversion, etc. Typical of this "trait" approach is the study of Bellingrath¹⁷ who found leaders to be older, taller, heavier, and more self-assured. Often the results of two different "trait" studies of leadership are in disagreement. This may be because one study is concerned with preschool children whereas another is concerned with college students. One study may define leaders in terms of a sociometric selection and another may employ ratings of teachers. Differences in leadership definition, measurement, subjects, research design, etc. make it difficult to combine the results of the many "trait" studies of leadership.

Although it is difficult to combine results of many "trait" studies of leadership, we will attempt this in answering the question: What characteristics, abilities, traits, etc. are related to leadership? We will organize our answers in terms of a seven-fold breakdown suggested by Goode.¹⁸ In general, leaders are slightly higher in intelligence than the average of the rest of the group. With respect to breadth of interest and aptitudes, "The leader is a well-rounded individual. . .

¹³ Farago, L. (Ed.) *German Psychological Warfare*. New York: Committee for National Morale. 1941.

¹⁴ Harris, H. *The Group Approach to Leadership Testing*. London: Routledge and Kegan, Paul. 1948.

¹⁵ O.S.S. Assessment Staff. *Assessment of Men*. New York: Rinehart. 1948.

¹⁶ Carter, L.; Haythorn, W.; and Howell, M. "A Further Investigation of the Criteria of Leadership," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1950, 45: 350-358.

¹⁷ Bellingrath, G. C. *Qualities Associated with Leadership in Extracurricular Activities of the High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 399. New York: Columbia University Press. 1930.

¹⁸ Goode, C. E., "Significant Research on Leadership," *Personnel*, 1951, 27: 342-350.

He tends toward interests, aptitudes, and knowledge with respect to a wide variety of fields." ¹⁹ Research evidence suggests that the leader has good language facility and speaks and writes simply, persuasively, and understandably. He is mentally and emotionally mature. The research findings show that strength of will, desire to excel, application, industry and other aspects of motivation are related to leadership. In summarizing research data concerning the role of social orientation in leadership, Goode suggests "The leader is fully aware of the importance of co-operative effort in getting things done, and, therefore, understands and practices very effectively the so-called social skills." ²⁰ Finally we can report a number of studies showing that leadership is related to common sense, speed of decisions, knowledge of how to get things done, understanding of situation, alertness to environment—all of which Goode enumerates under the heading of administrative skills.

Many of the characteristics, abilities, traits, *etc.* found to be related to leadership are important aims and objectives of speech training. It would seem reasonable, therefore, to consider certain aspects of speech training as training for leadership.

Basic to almost all formal training in speech as well as in most extracurricular speech activities is an emphasis on gaining facility with language. This emphasis is not confined to courses in public speaking but extends into work in discussion, debate, interpretative reading—in fact throughout the entire speech curriculum. To the extent the speech teacher succeeds in his goal of increasing facility with language, he is also training his pupils in effective leadership.

At the core of classical speech education as developed by Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian is an emphasis on training pupils to speak simply, persuasively, and understandably. This aspect of classical speech education continues to be emphasized by the speech teacher of 1953. Learning to sum up the opinions of the group and to express oneself sharply, decisively, and consistently seems to be learning which is not only a desired end-product of speech education, but which also contributes to the development of leadership skills.

Speech education and leadership training appear to have a good deal of common ground in the area Goode ²¹ has labeled *social orientation*. Leadership is related to "social sensitivity"; *i.e.*, the awareness of group feelings and beliefs. Likewise, for effective presentation the speaker must learn to analyze his audience to become aware of its feelings and beliefs. He must be sufficiently sensitive to the differences of opinion, cultural and religious backgrounds, or economic status of the group to which he is speaking to present his comments or information in a way which will neither antagonize nor bore his listener. In either case the emotion or disinterest would interfere with the speaker's goal—communica-

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰ *Ibid.*

²¹ *Ibid.*

tion of ideas, opinions, information, *etc.* This very need for analyzing his audience may help the speaker himself learn to appreciate and respect differences, develop a more objective attitude toward them, and, in the long run, live with others more effectively. This would appear to be good training for the social orientation aspect of leadership.

The organization, preparation, and presentation of material for debate or discussion can serve the purpose of leadership training. In addition to the values and skills reinforced by giving any good public speech, the pupil learns where to secure information on which to base a more intelligent opinion. A method sometimes used which assists him in understanding an opposing viewpoint is the preparation of a debate brief for the side of an issue to which he is opposed. Accumulation of evidence supportive of an opposing viewpoint can greatly facilitate acquisition of a more balanced attitude and a sounder more reasonable type of opposition which may lead to better understanding between himself and opponents and again a respect for differences. In any situation where the democratic process is to survive, the practice of appreciating differences in people and their viewpoints seems essential. Speech training provides situations where this practice can be experienced and can contribute to the development of leadership skill.

Through its use of group discussion and other group procedures, speech training helps pupils realize the useful possibilities of criticism. By observing the give and take of the members of his group, the speech pupil may come to perceive that criticism of an idea is not necessarily criticism of the person expressing it. Watching a discussion group in action, the pupil of speech may learn to recognize that persons and ideas have both strong and weak points in varying gradations of quality. Good discussion discourages the habit of seeing people or ideas as *either* good or bad. In this way speech training serves to develop awareness of group feelings and beliefs and thus contributes to an important aspect of leadership.

The speech arts may contribute to human understanding through interpretative reading. A really artistic presentation of a poem of James Weldon Johnson's, for example, might go far in helping a group appreciate the feelings, frustrations, or ideals of the Negro in our society. The reading of a portion of Pietro di Donato's description of an Italian construction worker's problems might similarly assist in developing understanding. The human emotions involved in miner's wage disputes might not be lost altogether with an occasional reading of something like Untermeyer's "Caliban in the Coal Mines."

Regardless of whether people are trained in skillful usage of speech, speech will be used frequently and with a very significant effect on human behavior. Within the school curricula and life activity routine of every pupil, there is an opportunity to learn to use speech skills and to practice certain disciplines in the act

of communication. Incorporation of these skills and disciplines into a learning process which emphasizes their usefulness in understanding is certainly one important component in the achievement of leadership skills and better human relations. The word "component" needs to be stressed, of course. By no means can we expect speech education overnight to produce a new generation of democratic leaders. Nor is the application of speech skills felt to be a wonder drug for the elimination of the social diseases of intolerance and inter-group tensions. We have seen, however, that certain skills, traits, characteristics, qualities, *etc.* found to be important in effective human relations and leadership are similar to those the effective speech teacher tries to develop in his pupils. It is proposed here that the use of some of the above-mentioned speech skills may contribute not only to the development of more effective leaders, but also to a society of more congenial, productive human beings.

Teaching Discussion for the Development of Democratic Behavior

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AMERICAN optimism and faith in the reality of "progress" have long caused conservatives to shudder and philosophers to knit their brows; but, despite the reservations of some, our forebears have striven with singular self-assurance to achieve that elusive, first objective of their Constitution: to form a more perfect union. For Americans, as Professor Mark Van Doren has recently said, "democracy is an ideal condition, never good enough at any moment in history . . . and whenever we shall decide we have had enough of it, we shall then have stopped seeking it, and shall lose what we already had."¹ And, as this observation implies, it is indeed true that, in the development of our social and political forms, the weight of words and arms and practice seems usually to have fallen on the side of democratization—as though the genius of the land had decreed that progress and democracy are one.

Under pressures for reform our original ideal of government by the consent of a restricted electorate has gradually given way before an ideal of government by the consent of all. And, though this second dream now nears realization, the historic yearning for yet greater perfection remains upon us. We now

¹ Address at the Barnard Forum: "The Modern School: Evolution or Revolution?" Reported in the *New York Herald Tribune*, February 24, 1952, Section 2, p. 6.

begin to see that, unless the many who consent to public policy participate as well in its creation, the impulse toward decay may soon exert its counter pressure. We ask, as it were, whether it is not possible to make of democratic man something wiser and more reliable than one whose political nature, as Plato thought, must always be "motley and manifold and an epitome of the lives of many—he answers to the State which we described as fair and spangled."²

This modern hope for responsible, popular participation in public affairs imposes relatively new and certainly difficult obligations upon those who plan and guide the processes of formal education. The responsibilities which a Presidential commission recently laid at the door of higher education are as certainly the tasks of all the schools:

[The] integration of democratic principles into the active life of a person and a people is not achieved merely by studying or discussing democracy. Classroom teaching of the American tradition, however excellent, will not weave its spirit into the innermost fiber of the students *Democracy must be lived to be thoroughly understood. It must become an established attitude and an activity . . .*³

But although we recognize and accept such obligations, we find them somewhat ambiguous. Even the President's distinguished commission stops short of identifying the specific qualifications with which we must imbue citizens of a maturing, industrial democracy.

I do not claim the wisdom needed to specify each quality essential to creative, active citizenship; I dare to suggest but one. It seems evident that the participating democrat must be able to engage successfully in *collective* inquiry and judgment. The rugged rustic, jealous of his independence and master of his environment, is no longer the archetype of democracy's ideal citizen. Rather, as Frank Walser has said,

This new uninformed, propagandized, unattached, and floating city population has created a dilemma which we have not yet mastered—a constant danger of collective passion and mob rule, such as was witnessed recently in Germany. It will remain a danger until we can educate the mass of the people to greater caution and self-control in arriving at conclusions.⁴

But can caution, self-control, and reflection become the attributes of popular behavior in an urban democracy? Plato and Aristotle thought it unlikely; and Jefferson, complaining against industrialization, seems to have doubted the possibility. The assumptions of the sages are ours to disprove if we can.

I am prepared, also, to consider but one of the means by which this capacity to discover responsible courses of democratic behavior may be strengthened in the schools. It is by systematic instruction in the art of group discussion. I hasten to add that I do not suppose the political vocabulary of citizenship will be enormously extended beyond "Yes" and "No" through an increase in this

² Republic, Book VIII. B. Jowett translation.

³ Higher Education for American Democracy, Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, vol. 1, "Establishing the Goals," p. 14. Italics mine.

⁴ The Art of Conference, rev. ed. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1948. P. 139.

kind of teaching alone. I do suggest, however, that quite apart from the value which discussion has as a means of perfecting the child's power of expression through the spoken word, it *can* be made an effective instrument for establishing habits of orderliness and reflection essential to responsible democratic action.

As was pointed out in this publication several years ago, the rationale for the process called discussion assumes "the willingness of the group members to participate in 'thought in process.'"⁵ The fact is, however, that neither children nor adults instinctively realize that collaboration in thinking can yield results which are superior to the product of individual thinking. Some of us have *learned* the values of conference and consultation, but how? Usually, I suspect, we learned through painful experience rather than from systematic teaching in the schools. If, through socialized recitations, project assignments, special-interest clubs, and other group enterprises, we were taught the graces and pleasures of collaboration, we were usually left to find for ourselves the patterns of behavior and the methods of inquiry most likely to make group experience productive as well as agreeable. Yet there are *expedient* as well as social justifications for group effort, and these can be demonstrated and taught with considerable precision. As the writers of one standard textbook in psychology have said,

... the superior value of group thinking, when demonstrated, is clearly due in part to (1) the larger number of ways of looking at the problem; (2) the larger number of suggestions for a solution; (3) the larger number of effective criticisms of each proposed plan; (4) the patent need to accept social criticism and not be "bullheaded."⁶

These are plainly values which democratic theory has long assumed; they are also values which can be seen, felt, understood, and believed when skillfully designed and directed group experiences provide the opportunity. What the citizen of the morrow must be shown is that disciplined and ordered group experience produces better results than anarchic behavior in or outside the group.

It is precisely here that the teaching of group discussion can make its unique contribution to the development of democratic behavior. The paradox which has always plagued democratic institutions is that method and discipline become increasingly elusive as the number of active participants grows. The teaching of group discussion attacks this paradox directly, however, for it emphasizes the *process* of group thinking and, in so doing, reveals the principles and methods of unified group inquiry while demonstrating their superiority over impulsive or egocentric reaction. The kinds of understanding which can be conveyed through training in discussion are, I think, admirably summarized in words written by the late Russell H. Wagner:

⁵ Ewbank, H. L. and Auer, J. J. "Decision Making! Discussion and Debate," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII, January 1948, p. 36.

⁶ Murphy, Gardner; Murphy, L. B.; and Necomb, Theodore M. *Experimental Psychology*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1937. P. 738.

The major divisions, the successive plateaus in group thinking, are those of definition-analysis, the setting of criteria, posing the solutions, and choosing and verifying the preferred solution. To be continuously aware of these chief stages of the process and to know how to adapt them according to varying types of subjects and personnel is indispensable for orderly and successful progress in discussion.

Even more important, however, in assuring that type of progress which makes group thinking clearly superior to individual thinking is the habitual use of sound practices in negotiating every single step of group thought-in-process. Agreement on objectives, united use of analysis, synthesis, and judgment as a mode of resolving problems great or small, accommodation to pace and personality, and mutual stimulation and response—these are the essential processes which can make discussion a successful, satisfying, and even exciting enterprise.⁷

If systematic teaching of the principles and methods of group discussion can help to establish these habits of individual and collective deliberation—and there is empirical and experimental evidence to suggest that it can—it must make a notable contribution to stability and responsibility in democratic behavior.

"All human rights," an eminent historian has said, "rest on the moral standards of the community and the nation—on habits and enjoyment of such rights."⁸ Skill in the process of collective inquiry and judgment, acquired through directed practice in discussion, cannot make men wise beyond their knowledge or sensitive beyond their perceptions. It can, however, establish habits, encourage sentiments, and suggest practices which are uniformly favorable to the rights most precious in democratic society. And those who learn how to think together must, of necessity, acquire the habits of reason, restraint, and self-control which distinguish a citizenry from a rabble.

Debate and Parliamentary Practice Contribute to Democratic Processes

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WOODROW WILSON stated: "The whole purpose of democracy is that we may hold counsel with one another, so as not to depend upon the understanding of one man, but to depend upon the counsel of all. For only as men are brought into counsel, and state their own needs and interests, can the general interests of a great people be compounded into a policy suitable to all.

⁷ Wagner, Russell H., and Arnold, Carroll C. *Handbook of Group Discussion*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1950. Pp. 84-85.

⁸ Beard, Charles A. *The Republic: Conversations on Fundamentals*. New York: Viking Press. 1943. P. 39.

Debate, discussion, and parliamentary practice have been and always will be the means of sustaining and perpetuating a free and democratic society. All who have an abiding faith in a free society must jealously guard and vigilantly preserve these forms of oral discourse. Fortunately, at the present time, we Americans enjoy perhaps the most favorable social and political climate in all the world, where counsel may flourish unhampered both within and without the confines of curricular offerings. For Americans, freedom of speech has always been more than the Law of the Land. It has been a reality from the earliest town meetings to the present televised conventions.

Debate, discussion, and parliamentary practice have much in common. The debater speaks as an individualist who firmly and aggressively takes a stand for or against a specific proposal. Through reasoned discourse he asks for a verdict. Like the trial lawyer, he is concerned with acceptance or rejection. The discussor abhors the partisan arguer. He seeks to distill the best thoughts of the group. He believes two heads are better than one and tries to pool all information and thought within the group on a given subject. He seeks the fullest co-operation in which the spirit of compromise prevails. Parliamentary practice is designed to obtain a unified plan of action through efficient co-operative discussion and debate, with minority rights and majority rule. It is standard procedure for ascertaining the best plan that can be agreed upon by regulated council of a particular group.

Never was there a time when the need for settling differences by talk has been more urgent than the present. Every day the world waits nervously hoping men will be able to talk together before the shooting starts. Particularly is the need urgent for Americans to hold much counsel with each other. The points of friction in our complex industrial society have increased a hundred-fold since the days of the colonial town meetings.

As we think about the ideal citizen who will contribute significantly to our democratic process, certain goals or standards come to our mind. In makeup, this ideal citizen should include the following six elements: (1) enlightenment, (2) the will and know how for co-operation, (3) efficiency in obtaining action, (4) proficiency in oral communication, (5) improved attitudes towards the individual, and (6) a deep and abiding faith in majority rule.

ENLIGHTENMENT

The citizen must be informed. The blind cannot lead the blind. The fruits of knowledge and light are many indeed. Information is the beacon light of truth. If truth can make us free, we must first have the knowledge and information by which truth may rise and be recognized. Emerson said, "Truth is not the property of one man." Oral discussion remains a most effective medium by which ideas based upon truth may be brought into circulation.

Group discussion, thereupon, is an important device for learning. The well-informed citizen has the first ingredient for bringing wisdom to the democratic process.

CO-OPERATION

Dr. Alexander Micklejohn, writing for *Harper's* magazine of June, 1938, stated, "So far as minds are concerned, the art of democracy is the art of thinking independently together." Discussion and debate thrive on disagreement. Conflicts and disputes, however, are approached in the spirit of co-operation. This co-operation manifests itself in the sharing of personal opinions, experiences, knowledge, and desires. Here everyone plays his part by contributing something in his own way. There is no place for shirkers or isolationists. The fact that a high-school pupil experiences this feeling may some day motivate him to play his part by going to the polls when election day comes.

In the close, intimate, face-to-face relationships of a class discussion group, pupils are somehow made to feel the need for co-operation and teamwork. The bullies and the "pop-offs" soon discover they are nuisances. Such training may give us fewer demagogues in Washington a generation hence. The shy and timid learn that their offerings are more highly regarded than they had imagined. Everyone feels that he belongs and that he shares a common responsibility for doing his part. In spite of individual differences and clashes of personalities, there is a fusing of minds and a common experience of "thinking independently together."

EFFICIENCY

We Americans pride ourselves for bringing speed and efficiency to our world of commerce and mechanical production. But, when it comes to political and social matters, we are often criticized for talking too much and doing too little. We stall and filibuster in our legislatures; our labor-management conferences are long and drawn out; and some of our court trials seem never to end. One outstanding fact, however, must be remembered: Americans resolve their differences through talk a thousand times for every single time they resort to force and violence. To act speedily and efficiently without wisdom is folly. Yet much can be done to improve the efficiency of action within groups. We can train people to utilize certain skills in solving problems, to analyze felt difficulties in such a way as to find the heart of the problem directly and speedily. Time-saving methods in conducting discussions and parliamentary meetings are teachable.

PROFICIENCY IN ORAL COMMUNICATION

It may be said that "he who speaks well gravitates towards the seat of influence." We cannot escape the recognition people give to the good talker. That effective speaking is of utmost importance goes without saying. In vari-

ous counseling situations, the pupil comes to grips with the problem of saying what he means in clear, direct, and simple words. Since he must be accountable on the spot for his contentions, he learns the importance of factual and logical support. Here is good training ground for critical thinking and discriminative speech.

IMPROVED ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE INDIVIDUAL

The Bill of Rights is an attempt to give us a legal prescription by which the individual may live proudly, securely, and freely. Our democracy rests on the assumption that the individual is important. It is a common ideal among us that the government exists for the people rather than the people exists for the government. This important attitude may be cultivated by discussion in group situations where high-school pupils can listen to each other's views with courtesy and respect. Here each person's word counts for something regardless of racial, social, or economic status. We thus have one of our most effective media for teaching tolerance, open mindedness, and the sacred worth of the individual. To deny high-school pupils these experiences is to invite those enemies of the democratic process such as bigotry, prejudice, and selfish interest to raise their ugly heads in later life.

AN ABIDING FAITH IN MAJORITY RULE

Democracy is an art in which the young must be carefully and thoroughly schooled. It is not enough to give the pupils the mechanics of discussion, debate, and parliamentary practice. We must help them build a frame of mind which will make democracy strong. The Maginot Line superiority complex led to the fall of France. England, on the other hand, weak with guns, but with an unshakable firmness of mind, withstood Hitler. We must surround our young people with conditions wherein the underlying philosophy of democratic living is a reality. As children we must see, know, and feel how democracy works. Only then will we come to accept it as part of our faith in country, government, and in life itself.

CONCLUSION

The democratic process must rely more and more upon purposeful talk, not by the few but by the many. Our society is growing more complex with increasing areas for frictions, grievances, and conflicts. Important spade work can be done in the methods of discussion which will improve the quality of final deliberations and the soundness of the decisions reached.

But discussion alone is not enough. There will always be a need for the debater. There are times when men and women will be called upon to speak up firmly and fearlessly for their convictions, and to expose the weaknesses of the opposition. We need the debater to prepare us for the hour of decision. There

comes a time when we can no longer escape making choices among principles, causes, and men seeking public office.

But the debater alone is not enough. There also comes a time when the will of the majority must be expressed in an orderly, efficient, and just manner. Parliamentary procedure is the established device for reaching this goal. Yet, parliamentary procedure by itself is not enough. All forms of group interaction through the spoken word play a vital part in the democratic process. None can be neglected.

Educators in our secondary schools have always been genuinely interested in improving and refining the processes of democracy. Here is an approach which offers both sound educational procedures and effective training for a more responsible citizenship in our democratic society. It is not enough to have leaders who are proficient in the skills of discussion, debate, and parliamentary law. The real strength of our democracy comes from truly effective participation by people of all groups, from all segments of society, large and small. To the extent our secondary schools embrace this concept will their contribution be increasingly more important in modeling better citizens for the American way of life.

The Youth Congress as a Democratic Speech Activity

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A YOUTH congress differs from workshop meetings or other types of discussion programs in that it is an organized, decision making body. It may be an imitation of an adult organization, such as a United Nations General Assembly or a state legislature, or it may be an actual decision making group, such as a student council or a federation of student councils.

The high schools of Roy Oak, Highland Park, and Wyandotte, Michigan, have developed a student congress on a representative basis. We call our program the Congress of the Border Cities League. It comes each semester as the climax of a series of discussions in which each school takes part. Experience with this, as well as with other types of youth congresses, has convinced me that they get results.

The Congress is carefully planned in advance by the teachers and pupils. It is an all-day program held at the University of Michigan graduate center in

Detroit. Each school brings as delegates pupils who have taken part in the preliminary discussions on the issues to be debated. Usually between eighty and one hundred attend. They are excused from their regular classes for this purpose.

The meeting is opened by a teacher, who explains the plan for the day and presides during the election of a president. The League has experimented with various schemes for nominating and electing officers. It is now done by rotation. The school whose turn it is to provide a president must nominate two candidates. Another school proposes two candidates for secretary. There are nomination speeches and speeches by the candidates themselves. All delegates vote.

After the officers have been elected, the president calls for the introduction of resolutions. These are submitted by each school in turn. They are based on the issues raised in the preliminary discussions. Copies are provided for all delegates. There are always three general topics around which the resolutions are grouped. For example, a Bill of Rights for Youth led to resolutions calling for the vote for eighteen-year-olds, pupil participation in curriculum planning, improvement of the grading system, *etc.* Improving Our Foreign Policy brought forth resolutions dealing with Korea, the Point Four program, MacArthur, *etc.*

These resolutions are then assigned to three committees. Chairmen and secretaries for these committees have been chosen in advance by the respective schools. All delegates have been assigned to a committee. In the committee meetings, each resolution is subject to consideration. Parliamentary procedure is followed. Motions to recommend to the Congress are made, and the debate gets under way. Amendments may be made. Resolutions may be rejected. New resolutions sometimes appear. Any delegate may speak if he can get the floor.

In the afternoon the Congress reassembles and hears the secretaries report on the decisions of the committees. The floor is then opened for action on the resolutions. A motion to adopt always results in debate. To speak, pupils must rise and address the chair. They are recognized in turn, priority being given to those who have not yet spoken. Usually debate continues until someone moves the previous question. Adjournment comes at the time set regardless of the status of business. The Congress does not pretend to be anything other than what it is, a group of high-school pupils expressing in a businesslike manner the group opinions on issues that concern them.

Our early experience with the Congress revealed problems which we have been working to eliminate. Some pupils come inadequately prepared either on the issues or correct procedure. One committee, assuming a degree of self-control beyond the powers delegated to it, voted itself a long noon recess. Parliamentary

procedure sometimes became an end in itself with points of order constantly interrupting the debate. A few aggressive persons have at times dominated and monopolized the discussions, especially in the committees. The Congress needs well-trained and capable presiding officers. Unskillful leadership causes difficulties. Teachers planning a congress should try to reduce the details of organization to a minimum and do as much as possible in advance in order to provide ample time for debate. There is danger, too, of unwise choice of topics. These must be controversial, important to the students, within the limits of their abilities, and worth while.

None of the above pitfalls needs to be fatal. The Congress of the Border Cities League has learned how to cope with them and at the same time maintain the democratic character of the meeting. From year to year better results are obtained.

The Congress offers excellent opportunities for speech training. There is, for one thing, a very high degree of participation. Almost every pupil takes part as a speaker either in the Congress or the committees or both. Some speak many times. The experience in parliamentary procedure is of value not only in the Congress itself but also in the extent to which it motivates a study of parliamentary law in the respective schools. There is training in group leadership, not merely for the officers but for the delegates seeking to win votes for their candidates or to pass or defeat a resolution. The elections bring into action some of the basic technique of influencing people. The debates call for clear thinking. No incorrect or illogical statement goes unchallenged. There are no memorized speeches. Most of them are impromptu, but pupils always recognize a basis of factual knowledge and previous thinking. And finally, the procedure has meaning. They are not high-school pupils debating national or international issues in a vacuum. They are a homogeneous group expressing group opinions. They take themselves seriously and are eager to reach wise decisions. This is highly motivated debate.

But speech training is not the only good that comes from the Congress. Pupils become interested in the democratic processes. They observe the weaknesses as well as the possibilities. They become generally more patient with and interested in our government. They become interested, too, in the issues, whether they be personal, national, or international in scope. They learn much about human relationships, especially from the errors that are made. A final good that comes from the Congress is the development of a friendly, co-operative spirit among the schools that take part. There is no pitting of school against school. There is competition to win votes and to convince listeners, but there are no judges, no ratings, and no champions. The winners are those whose opinions prevail. This is, after all, the only true proof of successful speaking.

Youth Learns To Serve the Community Through a Speaker's Bureau

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ANY introduction to this article presupposes, first of all, that the school administration looks with favor upon a healthy functioning of a pupil speakers' bureau. If it is considered to be nothing more than an outlet for the speech teacher's enthusiasm and his desire to exhibit his wares in public, then it is almost certain to be doomed from the start. Infinite obstacles will be found in the way of its progress and success. Missing a forty-five-minute period in a senior English class can be magnified into a crisis which will threaten a boy's graduation. Taking time out for a group meeting to prepare a panel discussion on "Youth Problems in Any Community," to be discussed by high-school pupils before the PTA, may be brushed aside by the athletic department as a frill which seriously interferes with the success of some athletic team.

Perhaps I am looking back too far as I recall the growth and development of the speakers' bureau here in the Oakwood High School where it has taken some twenty years to establish speech training on a sound basis, and where a speakers' bureau is maintained without difficulty. Surely, today, any school administrator realizes that our modern and multiple means of communication has given new evaluation to the spoken word. I believe that most adults would admit that they read less today and listen and hear more. A brilliant essay by a high-school pupil on "Juvenile Delinquency," in its printed form, would command very little attention, but, bring three pupils before the public on television and let them discuss that subject as they see it in their own lives, the value of the spoken word and youths' opinion assumes a real importance. It has been my observation that a no more attentive audience can be found anywhere than a noontide club listening to three high-school speakers who have been taught how to think and to express themselves clearly and effectively. This direct impact of young minds upon adult audiences in a world beset with challenging problems is refreshing and at times almost startling. The pre-requisite to any successful high-school speakers' bureau is this acceptance on the part of the school board and the whole teaching profession of the value of this type of public relations. When it is viewed as a valuable piece of service to the community and to the pupils alike rather than a means of exhibition or exploitation, then the first great obstacle is removed.

Granted that the school administration looks with favor upon the organization and functioning of a speakers' bureau, what are the steps to be taken in its formation? First, it is almost imperative that the school offer adequate training in the fundamentals of speech. This training, I believe, should begin

in the ninth grade before too many pupils have become hypnotized by the public acclaim for the football hero or the baton twirler. This course need not be required. It will attract a sufficient number of the better pupils if it is given proper recognition. Over fifty per cent of our ninth-grade pupils voluntarily come into this class of speech fundamentals. A majority of them continue with speech courses in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years. Just as it would be difficult to put a successful football team in the field, made up of upperclassmen without sufficient training in football fundamentals, so it is a hazardous undertaking to try to form a speakers' bureau out of a few seniors who are perhaps popular or scholastic champions, but without the proper speech background.

Granted, too, that the school has a capable speech instructor and a flexible enough program to permit pupils from all classes to participate, how does one find opportunities enough to insure the successful functioning of the bureau? As I look at my calendar, I notice that three such opportunities for our bureau are scheduled for the next ten days. One is for a double-barreled program in the evening before the young men in the Mount St. John Seminary. We shall give a demonstration debate lasting one hour before one group. This debate will deal with the proposed formation of a Federal union for the Atlantic Pact Nations. Another group of pupils will face another audience with individual presentations in oratory, extempore, dramatic, and humor. The two programs will run simultaneously and will not last more than one hour and a half.

Then I notice we are to have a panel of six pupils and a moderator as the main program before our PTA. This will not be rehearsed. Each pupil has been told to air youth's problems as he or she sees them at home, in society, and in school life. Parents undoubtedly will be given an opportunity to ask questions following the forty-five minutes by the panel. This program promises to be most interesting and enlightening.

The other item is a program for the Exchange Noontide Club when three students will discuss the world problems of war, prejudice, and narcotics. This is about the way opportunities present themselves all through the school year. No advertising is necessary. You become your own advertising agency each time your pupils appear in public. Occasionally pictures and a write-up in the paper will help tremendously and should not be frowned upon, as such means lend prestige to the school, gains public approval of its training program, and brings further opportunities. Just one caution here in this matter of publicity. The director of the student speakers' bureau will do well to keep his own name out of print. Let all the credit come to the school and to the department of speech. It is well also to see that any letters of praise or approval and all requests for speakers go directly to the school superintendent or principal.

Finally, does it cost anything to maintain a fine student speakers' bureau? Yes, a little. There must be adequate materials available for research work in

the fields in which your speakers hope to function. It has been estimated by some parents of outstanding speech pupils that the annual cost of furnishing needed materials could run as high as twenty dollars per pupil per year. Where is this money to come from if it is to serve the interests of only the favored few? In most cases the school administration will honor modest requests for certain magazines and debate references. The rest must come from money earned by the bureau itself or from the parents. Occasionally some organization served will offer to pay for the service rendered either to individuals or to the school. Generally this should not be accepted. The proper incentive should be service, not profit.

The question is often raised: "What do you want to do with your speech training?" But what better answer could any pupil give than to say: "I want to be able to serve my school and my community in a more efficient way through the leadership I develop through speech training." In this matter of expense Oakwood High School is a pioneer, I believe, in having one of the first Speech Parents' Associations. Like the boosters' clubs in the athletic field, this organization stands behind the work of the speech department in all its functions. It undertakes to do two things in particular—furnish safe and adequate transportation to all speech functions, and see to it that we have a bank account to draw on to maintain a broad program.

In a day when we debate the merits of the platoon football system, when to win another football game seems more important than to achieve victory in Korea, when jackpots are freely granted for naming a popular song or a movie star, I cannot refrain from this last plea to attach real significance and real value to the establishment of a pupil speakers' bureau. Let it be established in every school as a healthy liaison between the school and the outside world which, all too frequently, is prone to think of our schools as places where time is wasted and youth is misspent.

Learning To Participate in the Solution of Controversial Issues

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RECENTLY a special joint committee, representing the Speech Association of America and the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, outlined a program of speech education. The committee's report contained the following statement of basic educational philosophy: "In a free society, the welfare of all the citizens de-

pend ultimately upon public opinion. If they do not have the ability to form wise judgments on the basis of information and arguments presented to them, then the wise and the unwise will suffer together the consequences of their mutual failure to present and to comprehend sound courses of action. That man should be able rightly to conceive policies, effectively to communicate them, and readily to understand them is a matter of first importance."¹

If we accept these goals as being reasonable, let us consider ways and means of securing for our pupils at the secondary-school level the maximum accomplishment of these objectives. The importance of using the methods of scientific inquiry is generally recognized in our society. Within certain areas, our secondary-school curricula are based upon and employ such methods. It must be recognized, however, that outside the fields of the exact sciences, the experimental method has definite limitations. Many of the vital problems that confront our pupils cannot be solved in this manner. As John Dewey has pointed out: "There have been more scientific changes in the last fifty years or so than in centuries. But management of human relations still goes by guess work. It needs to catch up."²

NO STOCK ANSWERS POSSIBLE

While the teacher may provide the pupil with a few unchangeable "answers" in chemistry or engineering, it is becoming increasingly evident that permanent "answers" to many social, political, and economic problems cannot be supplied. The theory that education should provide "answers" to problems breaks down on two counts:

1. There are many problems for which no satisfactory solutions have been found. In some cases, after centuries of investigation, discussion, and practice, some problems persist as *controversial issues*. Consider problem areas such as these: labor management relations; U. S. relations with Russia and with the other nations of the world; corruption and public morality; safety on the highways; and racial discrimination. Unlike the mathematics textbook, there are no "answer" pages in the back of the book for topics such as these!

2. Some of the "solutions" that we have found may not work tomorrow—for conditions may, and probably will, be changed. Ewbank and Auer, commenting on the differences between the scientific method and the techniques of discussion and debate, have stated it thus: ". . . Scientific methods of investigation are followed in areas of relatively unchanging phenomena, such as the laws of physics, whereas discussion and debate are used in areas of constantly varying factors. . . . The scientific method may demonstrate that a particular procedure will function the same way for all people and for all times and

¹ "A Program of Speech Education," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XXXII, No. 3, October, 1951, p. 350.

² *Time Magazine*, Vol. 47, p. 45.

places. But a belief or course of action that seems advisable after a debate on its merits may apply only to certain people, times, and places.³

NOT ALL PARTICIPATE

In addition to the lack or indefiniteness of "answers" to many of the problems that he faces, the task of the citizen of today has further complications. As a member of groups in his local community, as a laborer or as an employer, as a member of a legislative body or as a voter in a democratic society, he has opportunities to participate in finding solutions to a wide variety of problems. What of the others who may be participating with him in the making of these decisions?

1. *The Uninformed and Inarticulate*—They will say nothing to influence his decision, but their votes, though based on ignorance, will be counted.

2. *The Informed, but Inarticulate*—They may have the information he needs in order to make an intelligent decision, but it'll never do him any good because they can't communicate.

3. *The Uninformed but Articulate*—They don't know what they're talking about, but they can speak convincingly. His unwitting acceptance of their specious arguments will lead him to erroneous conclusions.

4. *Those with Special Interests, Who Are Persuasive*—His self-appointed "advisers," the propagandists, lobbyists and commentators sometimes will present him with "selected" evidence that serves their special purpose. Some of these people will have ability to make "the worse appear the better cause." Some will lay down a barrage of misinformation and half-truths, of appeals to prejudices and dogma. If the citizen can't differentiate truth from falsehood, reason from fallacy, he'll find more wrong answers. We need to do everything possible to increase the number of people who are able to see through the superficialities and fallacies of ideas presented by others. In addition we need more people who, having thought through a problem, are *able* to make the sounder point of view prevail.

THE SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY

If the high school then is to assume its fuller responsibility in preparing its pupils for useful and intelligent citizenship, it must, in its program:

1. *Make It Possible for the Pupil To Become Acquainted With and Recognize the Importance of the Vital Problems of the Day*—When he takes his place in society, he should be prepared for what he finds. In some schools, topics such as those listed above are introduced in social study courses and speech classes. Other schools are developing special courses where a series of selected issues are discussed. Thousands of high schools throughout the United States provide opportunities for extracurricular activities in discussion and debate in which pupil

³ Ewbank, Henry L., and Auer, J. Jeffrey. *Discussion and Debate*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc. 1951. Pp. 33-34.

participants have opportunities to delve more deeply into current controversial questions.

2. *Develop the Skills of Responsible and Intelligent Citizenship*—It is not enough to present the topic to the pupil, he must be trained to the point that it will be possible for him to find satisfactory solutions to his problems. In fact, it would probably be unwise to turn a group of pupils loose on a complex social or economic problem unless precautions were taken to make sure that they were informed on the subject and trained in the skills of discussion. No amount of "discussion" by the uninformed can produce wisdom, nor can talk by the informed lead to significant conclusions unless the participants are skilled in the techniques of analyses and communication. If the best results are to be secured, the discussion training program should be directed by a speech teacher—trained in the methods of discussion, and qualified to develop those skills in others. The Harvard Report on *General Education in a Free Society* listed four major aims of general education: (1) effective thinking; (2) communication; (3) the making of relative judgments; and (4) the discrimination of values. All four of these aims can and should be accomplished in an integrated and functional high-school program that includes training in the following major skills:

a. *Ability To Analyze*. Whether the pupil ever seeks to influence another person or not, he will be in a position to evaluate the opinions, ideas, material, and arguments presented by others.

(a) *He should know what is evidence*. Cardinal Newman once remarked that the "first step in intellectual training" was to enable the boy to distinguish "what he knows from what he does not know." When a person has only one "fact" before him he may be in no distress, but when he is confronted by two "facts" that appear to be contradictory, he must have some basis for accepting or rejecting either, or both!

(b) *He should understand the principles of sound reasoning*, that he may avoid hasty generalizations, faulty deductions, faulty causal relationships, and other types of fallacies. These "defensive" values of skill in analysis should be sufficient to justify the training, but the competent citizen needs an additional skill.

b. *Ability to Communicate*. It is a faulty and dangerous assumption that, because one is able to communicate, he needs nothing further. Form without substance is the stuff of which demagogues are made. It is an equally faulty assumption that substance without form is sufficient, for, unless a thinking man can communicate his ideas to others, the ideas will die. On the office wall of a Detroit executive hangs this reminder: "Alone one can do little, but with the help of others thinking along the same lines, great things can be accomplished." One of the most dangerous myths that circulates in our society, and is occasionally endorsed by people who should know better, is the notion that "Eventually the good will prevail." I submit that Truth and Goodness will prevail only if a large enough number of people have the ability to differentiate sense from nonsense, and fact from fiction. The advocates of the Good are more skilled in communication than the advocates of the Evil, or the "Less-Good."

PRESENT DAY NEEDS

In our society today we need, more desperately than we have ever needed them before, more people who, aware of their responsibilities as citizens, and cognizant of the problems and issues that confront our society are ready and *qualified* to take an active interest in the solution of these problems. These people must recognize the necessity of being fully *informed*. They will have developed the ability to analyze problems and to think for themselves. They can communicate with their fellowmen and are, therefore, in a position to work out solutions to current problems in terms of the *conditions that exist today*. Finally, having arrived at sound and practical conclusions, they *also* have the ability to get other people to accept these ideas.

These results will not be achieved by accident. But they can be achieved if the school administrators recognize the importance of:

1. Intelligent citizenship is a goal of secondary education.
2. Familiarity with current controversial problems as an obligation of citizenship.
3. Skill in analysis and communication as integral parts of intelligent and meaningful discussion.
4. A discussion training program supervised by a teacher specifically trained in the methods and techniques of discussion.

The SAA-NCA committee state the challenge in these words: "... all our people must be made increasingly able to participate effectively in public affairs, in the union, in the church, in the corporation, in the legislative assembly, and in the Congress. A citizenry able to differentiate between sound and fallacious reasoning, to distinguish between acceptable and shoddy evidence, to tell an honest speaker from a verbal swindler, this is the minimum essential for the survival of a free and responsible society in a chaotic world."⁴

⁴ "A Program of Speech Education." *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, Vol. XXXVII, No. 3, October 1951, p. 350.

Teaching the Ethics of Speech

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"PUBLIC speech," said Woolbert almost four decades ago, "must be irrevocably consecrated to high ideals. . . . Low motives work best in whispered conversation or in a back room; high motives in the clear light of day. Thus is speaking in public one of the best practices for the youth of the land and one of the glories of the race."¹

For several years a philosophy has been developing in America devoted to the theory of the responsibility of society to the individual. In these troublous times

¹ Woolbert, Charles Henry, "The Ethics of Public Address," *The Public Speaking Review*, IV, 2, November, 1914, pp. 65-72.

it would seem almost self-evident that a need exists to restore to the citizenry some appreciation of their responsibility to society. For no social order can long be expected to take seriously its obligations to its members, which refuses to take seriously the obligations of its members to itself.

An essential function of the entire educational program is the development of social attitudes and social skills, together with a sound body of understanding that will enable the individual to apply these skills with intelligence, effectiveness, and flexibility. Of equal importance is the development, along with these abilities and the understanding, of a sense of social responsibility in their application. It is not enough that we teach our pupils the techniques of social facilitation, social integration, and social control. If we would maintain the highest standards of our calling as teachers, we must give them also a rationale. We must instruct those under our tutelage in the social implications of those abilities that are being developed, and in the potentialities inherent in those abilities for either the good or the ill of society, and then attempt to inculcate standards of ethics that will contribute to their use of those techniques for the well-being of humanity. The need has probably never existed as it exists today for the application of sound ethical principles in our social, political, and economic relations. In his recent book, *Philosophy of Education*, Kilpatrick speaks at length of the social necessity of morality and the part played by the acceptance of personal obligations in connection with attitudes and conduct.² The implication is obvious that the development of these attitudes and types of conduct is an integral aspect of the philosophy of education. "In the largest sense of the word," said Dewey, "morals is education."³

Of all the activities which have within them the power for the good or ill of humanity and which come within the scope of the whole educational program, none is more potent and none offers greater opportunities than speech itself. The very purpose of speaking is to influence the thinking, the feelings, and the actions of the listeners; and to get others to think, to feel, or to do as the speaker wants them to do. One needs only to review the utterances, and their effects, of such extreme examples as Hitler and Churchill to realize that effective utterances can work either way, depending on the ethical standards of the speaker. Since the potentialities in speech are so great, it follows that training in the application of ethical standards in speaking is as essential as training in the techniques of speech themselves. "Skilful utterance," said Professor Smith, "can be totally destructive unless it is motivated by honest thinking, a feeling for justice, and a genuine concern for the well-being of humanity."⁴

² Kilpatrick, William Heard. *Philosophy of Education*. New York: Macmillan Company. 1951. Chapter VIII, "Morality: A Social Necessity."

³ Dewey, John. *Human Nature and Conduct*. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 1922. P. 280.

⁴ Smith, Joseph F. Quoted in Giles Wilkeson Gray and Claude Merton Wise, *The Bases of Speech*. Revised Edition. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1946. P. 374.

If, then, we are to include in our teaching of speech the inculcation of a sense of social responsibility—an appreciation of ethical values—how is it to be done without at the same time breaking in on our teaching of sound rhetorical doctrine? Is it possible to instruct in the basic principles of good speaking and at the same time insist upon the inclusion of moral and ethical principle? Such a union is more than possible; it is a fulfillment of that "sound rhetorical doctrine" which has come down to us from Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian. Isocrates, the greatest teacher of classical Athens, was unaware of any conflict; and Quintilian insisted that only the good man could become an orator. The inclusion of ethical principle is a vital necessity unless we are willing to resign ourselves to the prospect of turning out class after class of social irresponsibles. "The cultivation of a sense of responsibility is a crying need for public speakers today—just as it was yesterday and will be tomorrow."⁵

Some aspects of speech lend themselves quite readily to specific exercises or even drills. They comprise much of what may be called the techniques of speech. While they should by all means be based on the intent, the purpose, the thought of the speaker, they are for the most part concerned with skills, with speaking as an art; that is, as something that is done, an act which is performed. Since they are calculated to make more effective the accomplishment of the speaker's intent, they are of great importance in the program of speech education. They are not concerned, however, with the reasons for the determination of that intent.

Other aspects of speech, however, are not matters of skill or proficiency. They are not directly related to speech as an art, or even as a science; they have to do with speech as a vital factor in social integration, in social adaptation, in social control. They are not concerned with the performance as such, but with the underlying reasons for that performance. They are matters of what might be included in a philosophy of speech and of speech education. Since these aspects are related only indirectly, if at all, with the techniques of speech, they do not lend themselves so readily to specific exercises. They cannot be acquired by drill, arising as they do almost wholly out of social attitudes. They cannot be assumed superficially (although a superficial display can be made); they must be made part of the total pattern of thought and conduct habits. "*Conscious morality . . . becomes the settled conscious obligation and will so to act as promote and foster the good life in all persons affected by one's conduct, and to do this as well as possible, all things considered. . . .*"⁶

Because specific practice is generally of little avail in the development of such a "settled conscious obligation and will," it is difficult to give definite instruction in how it is to be taught. However, it must be recognized that "There is a

⁵ Thomsen, Lester, and Baird, A. Craig. *Speech Criticism*. New York: Ronald Press Company. 1948. P. 470.

⁶ Kilpatrick, *op. cit.*, p. 98. *Italics in the original.* Ethics, according to the *American College Dictionary*, consists of "the principles of morality, including both the science of the good and the nature of the right."

need for the establishment of a more binding relationship between the instrumental and the ethical components of the speaking art."⁷ Possibly a few suggestions may be helpful in emphasizing and in establishing the necessary attitudes on the part of the pupils of speech. If detailed classroom methods may be difficult if not impossible to prescribe, one can at least suggest objectives, ends, purposes, and principles, and leave to the classroom teacher's ingenuity the responsibility for the specific program.

The effectiveness of any educational philosophy depends ultimately on the appreciation of that philosophy by the classroom teacher, and her diligence in its application. The first requisite to the teaching of the ethics of speech, therefore, is the thorough indoctrination of the teacher herself. Whatever may be her other qualities as a teacher, she will not be successful in developing a sense of social responsibility among her pupils unless she herself is thoroughly convinced that such instruction is an integral part of her own responsibility as a teacher. She will not even try more than half-heartedly.

Without an active, even aggressive sense of social responsibility on her own part, she may succeed only in training speakers who are skilful in promoting their own selfish interests at the expense of others; who are adept in the use of the language of obfuscation; who speak to confuse rather than to clarify. It should be borne in mind that advocates of subversion are usually effective speakers, using that effectiveness to destroy for others that privilege of speech which they are the most insistent in demanding for themselves. In order to turn out speakers who are aware of their own capacity and responsibility for contributing to the welfare of society, the teacher must herself possess a keen appreciation of the social values inherent in effective speech for society at large as well as for the individual pupil.

One of the first steps in the teaching of the ethics of speech is the development of an awareness of the nature of ethical concepts in general. For actually, ethics in speaking consists simply of the general principles of ethics, applied in the speaking situation. This awareness can be aroused through group discussions of specific situations like the following, in which questions of right and wrong are involved:

1. We all know something of the nature and value of loyalties. Which should take precedence in acting on the basis of loyalty, personal friendships, the social group, or moral principles? If your friend were being unjustly accused by your group, which should you support? If an unpopular member for whom you do not care at all personally were being wrongly attacked, which would you support?

2. You will one day have the privilege of voting in national, state, and local elections. Should you vote for a candidate of slightly inferior qualifications who has an excellent chance of winning, or for a candidate of the highest calibre, but who apparently has no chance?

⁷ Thonassen and Baird, *op. cit.*, p. 471.

3. In an election campaign should you support the candidate of your party, whom you know to be lacking in personal integrity, or the candidate of the opposition, whose honesty is unquestioned? To what extent does your employment by the political division holding the election obligate you to support the candidate now in office?

4. You are a halfback on the football team. In a recent game, while you were carrying the ball on the last play of the game, the referee did not see you step out of bounds on the thirty-yard line, and you went on to cross the goal line for the winning touchdown. Should you let the score stand?

5. What is the difference between reporting a burglar breaking into your neighbor's house, a pupil breaking into another's locker at school, and a classmate "stealing" a grade to which he is not entitled, by cheating on an examination?

6. Shortly before the final examination in a history course, some of the pupils illegally procured copies of the questions. They all made grades of A and B, while another pupil who refused to use the questions was given only a C. What should have been the procedure, either before or after the examination?

While these situations do not necessarily involve the ethics of speech *per se*, they will stimulate discussions of general principles which can readily be applied to specific speech situations.

If the teacher, in the development of her program, will emphasize three points she will at least make her pupils aware of the importance of the problem. Although these three are actually inseparable, for our present purpose they can be considered separately. They are (1) the problem of motivation, (2) the matter of the honesty of one's thinking, and (3) the use of language. In introducing and developing any of these the teacher can make use of her own presentation of basic principles, suggest speech topics having to do with some of the aspects of speech in a democratic society, institute classroom discussions, encourage questions on the speech content from the members of the class, present for study examples of both observance and violation of ethical principles, assign the observation and analysis of current speakers, and so on. If an election campaign is in progress, it will afford excellent opportunity to bring out several of these teaching procedures.

With respect to the problem of motivation, two aspects should be considered. Every textbook on public speaking contains one or more chapters on motivation; but, whereas most of them consider the subject only from the point of view of appealing to the motives of the audience as an element in securing the desired responses, few of them are concerned with the speaker's own motives in urging that response, or even in bringing the subject before the audience. Neither of these should be neglected; both are directly involved in the problem of the ethics of speech.

Stress on the following general principles should aid in emphasizing the ethical aspects of speaking:

1. Teach the pupil that as a practical speaking technique, he should choose his motive appeals, other factors being equally potent, on the basis of the most probable response,

usually in terms of benefits accruing to the listeners, and that ordinarily benefits to the group will have a greater appeal than benefits to any individual; but

2. Teach him that often his most powerful appeal will be to motives whose end results bring benefits not to his listeners, but to entirely different people, usually those in want or need. Here again group benefits have the stronger appeal.

3. Teach him also that, in either of the cases above, the end results must have social values, which are of far greater importance than any good that may come to an individual, and may even conflict with it.

4. Teach him that it is usually more effective to direct the attention of the audience not to the motive itself, but to the end result. By so doing, the speaker can emphasize its importance and value to the social order.

5. Teach him to make an honest appraisal of his own motives in speaking, and avoid attributing his actions to motives other than those actually present.

Honesty in thinking can be stressed by an insistence on a careful regard for, and a fair, unprejudiced presentation of facts, avoidance of "fabricated evidence,"⁸ the application of close logic in drawing inferences, the recognition of elements of truth in differing points of view, an understanding of opposing argument, and a tolerance in honest disagreement. It is obvious that these elements are valid not only in connection with the ethics of speech, but also in our everyday relations.

The pupil must be taught to use language with a view to the utmost clarity. If the speaker is to have a due regard for facts himself, his language must present those facts to his listeners as definitely and unequivocally as possible. He must have a clear understanding of the meanings of the words he is using, and he must "*see to it that his audience understands them in the same sense.*"⁹ He should avoid the kinds of stereotypes that are too often used as a substitute for thinking, to arouse attitudes without providing a rational basis for those attitudes.

An effective assignment designed to test the pupil's understanding of his language is to require him to give a three- to five-minute definition of some term in common use, to attempt to explain its meaning in terms of human experience. The assignment can be applied to many "abstract" terms, to two-word terms, to technical terms, to literary terms. What does Coleridge mean, for example, when he writes of "the silly buckets on the deck?"

It is often of value to attempt a paraphrase of some passage the meaning of which is not readily apparent. Another possible assignment is to hold a discussion in which an effort is made to arrive at a common understanding of the meaning of some term that is not generally understood.

Whatever may be the specific procedures employed, they should not be dwelt upon until they become boring. An *occasional* assignment along the lines

⁸ Oliver, Robert T.; Cortright, Rupert L.; and Hager, Cyril F. *The New Training for Effective Speech*. Revised Edition. New York: Dryden Press, Inc. 1946. P. 15.

⁹ Gray, Giles Wilkeson, and Braden, Waldo W. *Public Speaking: Principles and Practice*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1951. P. 404. *Italics in the original.*



Pupils doing research work learn to have due regard for facts and for presenting them to their listeners as definitely and unequivocally as possible.

suggested; an *occasional* reference to social responsibility, ethics, and so on, when it is particularly appropriate; an *occasional* class discussion should suffice. Some types of speaking assignment contain inherent ethical considerations; these can be given with no direct reference to their implications. Avoid sermonizing; put your discussions of ethics and social responsibility on a rational basis.

When possible, and it will usually be possible, develop an acceptance of a sense of social obligation by giving your pupils the opportunity of living and speaking in situations in which such considerations are vital, and obvious. "*We learn what we live, we learn each item we live as we accept it, and we learn it in the degree we accept it.*"¹⁰

¹⁰ Kilpatrick, *op. cit.*, p. 244. *Italics in the original.*

CHAPTER VII

WE TEACH THE USE OF KNOWLEDGE

The Study of Contemporary Affairs Through Speech

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FROM the very beginning of the formal teaching of public speaking, a considerable tie has existed between speech and the current affairs of the day. The relationship is inevitable and it works both ways. The teacher of speech, recognizing the need for *motivation* in the speech making process, has found a great portion of it in contemporary affairs. The teacher of history and current affairs, on the other hand, has turned to the methods of *speech* in connection with the study of the events that agitate the minds of men in any given period. If we may assume that a knowledge of current affairs is essential to effective citizenship and if we may further assume that speaking proficiency is an indispensable requirement for effective citizenship, then it becomes clear that contemporary affairs and speech belong together in any educational program that aims at citizenship training.

The question to be considered here is one of ways and means. What has been done in the speech curriculum and in classroom practice to utilize this natural relationship between speech and contemporary affairs? An examination of curricula, evaluation inventories, and widely used textbooks seems to suggest that in the field of speech, at least, relatively little has been done.

In 1945 Professors Knower and Robinson published a general speech program inventory for secondary schools, in which they included the following items:

12. Do you have units devoted to the selection and evaluation of subjects and materials to talk about for various levels of learning?
13. Do you help students enrich their background and knowledge for use in speaking as they mature intellectually?
35. Is your program in speech instruction well supported by and co-ordinated with other programs of instruction in your school such as social studies, English, and art?
36. Is your speech program directed toward making a contribution to education for life in a democratic society?¹

In conforming to these requirements, it may be supposed that the teacher of speech will have come upon the field of current affairs more than once. Items twelve and thirteen demand a thoughtful examination of the useful areas

¹ Knower, F. H., and Robinson, K. F. "Evaluating a High-School Program." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, No. 133, November, 1945.

of information which could scarcely fail to include for the secondary-school pupil the topics of current interest in his community, his state, his nation, and the world. Experience indicates that the average high-school pupil will turn rather early to the topics on the front page of his newspaper in his search for speech materials. If he doesn't, on the other hand, the teacher has a well-defined duty to direct his interest toward such matters. Item thirty-five in the inventory directs attention to the fact that an adequate speech program will involve a great deal of co-ordinated effort with the social sciences.

Naturally, those who read this will have done some experimenting along the lines of integration before now, but, for what it is worth, I should like to suggest a Speech-Current Affairs Unit with which I have had some success. It is not the whole answer to integration problems in the speech-English-social science triangle, neither is it foolproof in operation. It follows:

AN INTEGRATED UNIT IN SPEECH AND CURRENT AFFAIRS

ASSIGNMENT ONE: *The Impromptu Round*

PURPOSES:

1. To provide motivated practice in impromptu speaking.
2. To confront the pupil with vocabulary shortcomings.
3. To confront the pupil with the challenge of current issues—probably with the inadequacy of his information on these issues.

The instructor will provide a list of topics based upon current issues of the day. These may come from the front page and editorial column of the newspaper and the radio newscasts. They may take a bit of editing by the teacher. There should be no more than three of these issues as a rule. The pupil will be given a short time (five minutes) to ready himself and will then be called upon to speak for two minutes on one of the subjects.

ASSIGNMENT TWO: *The Discussion Round*

PURPOSES:

1. To provide practice and experience in group discussion as a speech form.
2. To acquaint the pupils with the democratic method for becoming informed on issues and achieving effective group judgment on current problems.
3. To insure greater knowledge of the specific issue under consideration.

At the end of the impromptu round, the class will be in a position to realize the prevailing lack of information and the lack of any basis for validating opinion. One of the topics treated in Assignment One will then be selected for further consideration in a group discussion. The length of this discussion will be determined by considerations such as number of hours or class periods available to the unit as a whole, but it is urged that it continue for at least two class sessions. For this stage, the pupils will be required to come prepared and equipped with as much detailed information and as large a sampling of adult opinion as they can acquire. The group will then talk over the issue in a face to

face situation and according to such discussion principles as the instructor has provided. Depending upon the issue and any other factors present, the instructor may wish to suggest that the class seek consensus. In addition, he should evaluate pupil achievement in the method of discussions, as well as techniques of leadership and participation.

ASSIGNMENT THREE: *The Formal Speech Round*

PURPOSES:

1. To provide practice in selecting and arranging materials for speech, and an opportunity to deliver an extemporaneous speech under conditions which assure the speaker that he knows whereof he speaks.
2. To provide a group of young citizens with an opportunity to communicate their ideas and express their feelings upon a matter of genuine and immediate concern.
3. To assure to the individual citizen a well-thought-out and useful reaction to matters of current importance.

After the topic selected has been thoroughly talked over by the group (class) and everyone present has been allowed to join in the search for facts and the formulation of opinions, the teacher will assign a round of extemporaneous speeches in which each pupil will put into spoken language his thinking on any phase of the contemporary problem under consideration during the unit.

The flexibility of the foregoing unit recommends it for use in any high school, large or small. In the large school, it is to be hoped that it will be used as a unit in the first speech course; in the school without speech classes, it could be introduced in connection with an American literature study in English or in a social science course either in history or citizenship. A workshop session composed of principals and teachers of speech, English, communications, and social science in McLean County, Illinois, has gone on record as favoring the experimental use of this unit in all three areas—speech, English, and social science. They may have something interesting to report in another year.

Some teachers may feel that the impromptu unit should be omitted and the class should go directly into the discussion stage. It's likely that most of the purposes may be achieved if the start is made with discussion. It still seems important, however, that the impromptu session be used to confront the pupil at the outset with his real needs both as to speech and knowledge of current affairs.

The growing importance of the discussion method, brought about by the recent preoccupation with group dynamics in education, makes the second assignment a natural. In fact, the growing use of discussion in speech instruction and its adoption as a speech technique have brought speech teaching and the consideration of contemporary affairs even closer together. As Keltner put it: "Why not let these people learn discussion by solving the very real and very pressing problems of their time. . . . But force a group to consider a prob-

lem which has no real motivation in its actual life behavior, and the usual results are desultory discussion and poor techniques of group activity."²

Perhaps in your use of such an integrating unit you will wish to follow the discussion assignment with a round of debate. I'm assuming here, of course, that the unit will be taught where there exists no formal course in argumentation and debate. There is little doubt that, within the limits of the issues argued, the best way to become thoroughly alive to and informed on contemporary affairs is to debate them. Whenever debate is practicable in the secondary school, it should be used. My failure to include it in this unit is due to my doubt that there will be sufficient time for the extensive research and the rigorous training in advocacy necessary to any argumentation worthy of the name. If such time is available, however, debating of the current problem might well be added. The purposes of the assignment may be met very well by the use of a fairly formal extempore speech. On the side of speech training, it will assure a genuinely thoughtful job of oral expression and communication; on the side of knowledge of contemporary affairs, it will represent the net gain in understanding of at least one of the current problems.

STUDY OF THE SPEECHES OF IMPORTANT FIGURES IN THE CONTEMPORARY SCENE

The teacher of speech will have at hand another means for making pupils aware of the issues of their time through the study of current public addresses. When General MacArthur returned to America and spoke before Congress, alert teachers of public speaking brought his pronouncements to class for study through newspaper reports, direct radio broadcasts, or the playing of records. The same thing occurs when the President of the United States reports on the state of the nation, or when the British Prime Minister visits America and takes the platform. Because what is said is always as important as the way in which it is said, the pupil learns as much about the affairs discussed as about the speech techniques employed. Such sources as *Vital Speeches* and the various annual collections of public address may also be used to advantage.

It is important that the pupil of public speaking should be given a clear view of the proper relationship between speech and the affairs of the day. The speaking citizen doesn't operate in a vacuum. He finds himself moved to stand up in a meeting and speak on the issues of his day and his society. If the teacher of speech remembers this and bases the class study of contemporary speech on the issues, he will provide the pupil with better speaking practice and at the same time a more useful grasp of contemporary affairs.

² Keltner, John, "Discussion in the High-School Fundamentals Course," *The Central States Speech Journal*, 1949, p. 23.

THE USE OF MATERIALS PROVIDED BY SPECIAL AGENCIES

Certain organizations which loom large in local, state, national, or international affairs have made available materials which lend themselves naturally to the teaching of speech and current events. UNESCO, for example, provides a lot of material which might be used. Indeed a committee of the Speech Association of America reviewed this whole problem of ways and means for promoting world understanding. Although their material seems to have been worked out with colleges in mind, much of it can certainly be applied at the secondary-school level. To quote from the report: "The promotion of world understanding will be carried on largely through the speech techniques of drama, discussion, debate, interview, and public speaking."³ It is suggested further that: "Members of the committee believe that teachers of public speaking, discussion, and debate can take part in the promotion of international understanding without neglecting their responsibilities as teachers of speech. They can contribute both to the long-term process of training future leaders, and to a better understanding of current UNESCO and UN problems. Their efforts, of course, should be based on a proper distinction between the educator and propagandist."⁴ This group recommended in its report that, in our courses in discussion, debate, and public speaking, the United Nations be made a frequent topic for consideration. This, of course, is only one area in which current international affairs can be related to speaking techniques. The materials of political parties, labor unions, and management groups may also be brought in to provide classes of high-school speakers with down-to-earth, really significant speech situations. It's probably unnecessary to remind the reader that the teacher will have a job here of distinguishing between promotion and discussion, a distinction that many people tend to forget.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AND CONTEMPORARY AFFAIRS

Extracurricular work in speech as has been previously mentioned provides some of the finest opportunities for the study of current affairs. The value of concentrated study of a current problem by members of competitive debate squads is so well known as to need little special comment. Many a veteran of high-school or college debate dates his intelligent interest in and detailed knowledge of numerous current issues from the time when he debated them. It's quite possible that at the secondary-school level a great deal more could be done with school forums on matters of public concern. Radio programs covering the news during high-school hours may also serve. The dramatization of contemporary episodes provides a considerable opportunity in connection with the theatre. Nevertheless, the place where most work remains to be done is in the

³ *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, October, 1950, p. 345.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 348.

classroom. After all, the ability to discuss contemporary affairs intelligently must be provided for all citizens, and the classroom is the only place where all may be reached.

Discussion as a Tool in Acquiring and Using Knowledge

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FRANKLYN HAIMAN

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WE HAVE learned much in recent years about the essential role of discussion in groups, institutions, or societies which aspire to democratic ideals. The values of group discussion as a method of dealing with personal and social problems of all kinds have been brought rather *forcibly* to the attention of those whose job it is to influence and guide human behavior. We have come to appreciate its importance as a decision-making tool in action groups—its value as a stimulator of group interest and understanding, its worth as a mold of better decisions, its effectiveness in gaining support for social policies. We have seen an ever-increasing awareness of the power of group discussion as a psychologically therapeutic device and as an instrument for the training and development of democratic leadership. Our purpose here is to explore still another of its aspects. We propose to examine discussion primarily as a tool or instrument in the *acquisition and use of knowledge and information*.

Many discussions, carried on in committees, boards, clubs, or other so-called action groups, are designed to evolve explicit and definite policies which are to be executed by members of the group. It is obvious that the success of such meetings depends upon specific information and knowledge of the subject being discussed. Other discussions, such as those carried on in the classroom or public forum, are not designed primarily to achieve immediate action. It is, of course, hoped that individual growth will result from such talk and that this too will eventually lead to some kind of action. Such meetings, no less than those where immediate decisions are the goal, require that information and knowledge of the subject be present if the conversation is to amount to more than a pooling of ignorance.

No effective discussion can take place without material, or without preparation, except in those therapeutic situations where the "materials" are simply the personal feelings or emotions of the members of the group. One of the

criticisms of discussion which has held considerable popularity in the past years has been that much of our time is expended in talking about things that we know nothing about. This too often is the case, and it is the partial result of misunderstanding of the nature and purpose of the discussion *pattern* of thinking. Effective discussion requires a kind of discipline in the handling of information which is quite as rigorous as most any other form of communicative activity. Although we hope to demonstrate later in this article that the discussion method is uniquely effective in *stimulating* the member's research efforts, in *translating* words on a page into living, functional ideas, and in *creating* new combinations of ideas, we should like to preface these thoughts with an emphasis of that concept that, at *every* turn in the discussion process, *information* is essential.

DISCUSSION PATTERNS

To substantiate this viewpoint let us examine, for example, the discussion pattern recommended by the textbooks, based upon the John Dewey scheme of reflective thinking. By way of review, this pattern entails at least four basic steps.

1. The prime step in problem-solving is to establish a clear-cut end in view, or a basic objective toward which the discussion must reach.

2. Following the establishment of a general or basic goal, the discussion situation requires a careful analysis of the factors that are involved in the problem. This entails an understanding of the symptoms and causes of the problem and of the obstacles standing in the way of attainment of the goal.

3. The third phase is concerned with the examination and evaluation of possible solutions.

4. If and when a solution is agreed upon, it is frequently incumbent upon the discussants to proceed to a consideration of methods for putting the solution into action.

In brief, then, the basic steps through which effective discussion pass are goal-setting, analysis, solution-making, and action planning. Let us now analyze this pattern to discover at what stage or stages particular types of *information* may be required.

1. Before the objectives of a group can be established and discussion ensue, those members who are taking an active part must know what the purposes and possibilities of this particular discussion situation are. This is the kind of knowledge that has to do with the *immediate* situation. It requires that the participants and leaders know something about the *people* who are in this group, that they know something about the *intentions* of those who created the group and the responsibilities that were envisioned for it, that they know something about the nature and limitations of the *subject* to be discussed. Since this first stage is of tremendous importance to the effectiveness of group thinking, it is necessary that all the participants be fairly well aware of the general direction in which the group should be moving. This kind of information is an essential prerequisite to intelligent problem solving. It is a personal type of information,

involving motives and intentions. Too often this aspect of the discussion and this particular kind of knowledge are over-looked.

2. At the analysis level, the greatest emphasis is on a wide and thorough understanding of factual materials, predominantly of an objective nature. Here the discussion pattern requires a careful examination of statistics, expert opinions, historical backgrounds, causative theories, and personal experiences of group members. Available information may be almost limitless. However, it is reasonable to limit consideration to those materials which are most immediately relevant to an understanding of the obstacles which stand in the way of achievement of the group's goal. When a doctor diagnoses a patient, inquiring into the symptoms and causes of the illness, his investigation is usually carried only so far as to cure the immediate ailment. Ordinarily, he does not explore the social and economic conditions that may have led to inadequate food, clothing, and shelter which may have caused weakened resistance to the disease in question.

In some group problems the depth and scope of the analysis is so complex that not one but many discussions are necessary to cover material required for an adequate understanding. All the materials, of course, can be classified into at least the two categories, evidence and reasoning, traditionally known to teachers of speech.

3. At the solution level, a somewhat different kind of information is necessary. The need is for as *many ideas* as can be gathered on possible ways of overcoming the obstacles and attaining the goals that have already been agreed upon. Many such ideas can be found in the writings of authorities who have given thought to the problem or other individuals or groups who have tried out various methods of dealing with similar problems. Here, too, is a need and opportunity for what might be called *creative* information, growing out of the interchange of ideas in the immediate group itself. The suggestions which have been brought in from outside sources and shared around the room may lead to the spontaneous development of a new possibility or of new combinations of old ones.

It is a sad fact that many discussion groups confine themselves, at this stage of the process, to a consideration of *too few* possibilities. Their thinking is too bound to old patterns and is not sufficiently creative. This is one phase of discussion where imaginativeness can and should be encouraged. Information needed at this stage is largely of the stimulative or speculative variety. It is not beyond reason to expect that even fiction literature might be of help at this point.

4. Action planning is largely a technical matter requiring technical know-how. Learning groups are usually not concerned with this phase. Policy-determining groups will often leave this matter in the hands of experts to execute. When and if it becomes a part of the discussion, the information required usually has to do with the techniques of influencing human behavior.

All the various types of information we have discussed can, for convenience, be placed in two broad categories. The first would include information about *people* who are in the group and who are concerned with what the group is doing. This information is necessary for an understanding of the functioning of the group and of its purposes. It includes such items as the vocational and special interests of the members of the group, their likes and dislikes, their values and sentiments, and their feelings toward one another.

The second category would include information about the *subject* being discussed by the group—facts, opinions, speculations, *etc.*, which aid in an understanding of the problem itself. Of these two categories of information, the second has long been recognized as one of vital concern to persons about to engage in discussion or any other kind of communicative process. The first has often been over-looked. The second is vitally important but so is the first. *Many discussions become meaningless because of a failure to understand the intents and purposes behind the participation of the various members of the group.*

UNIQUENESS OF DISCUSSION

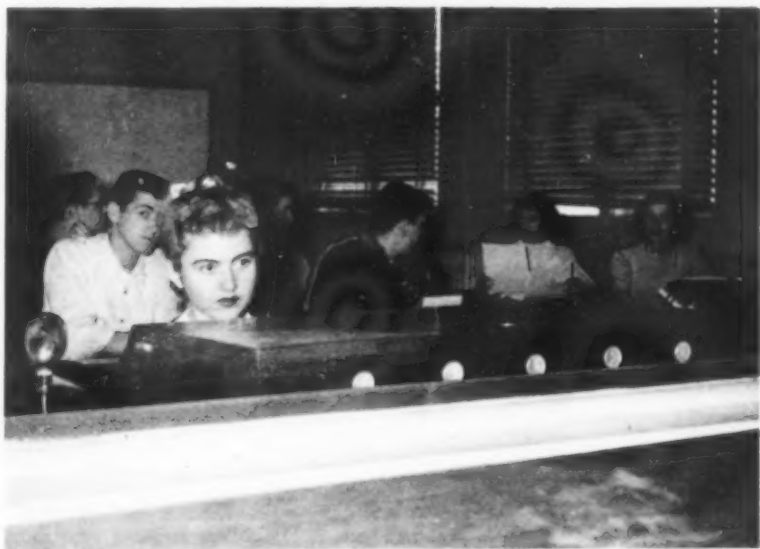
With this background of the relationship between the phases of discussion and the types of information required for each phase, let us now proceed to a consideration of the uniqueness of discussion as a tool for acquiring and using knowledge. As we suggested at the outset, there are at least three unique contributions that the discussion method can make to the learning process. *First*, it is an extremely effective *motivating* influence. *Second*, it is perhaps the only effective method for *translating* sheer verbal memorization into living, functional ideas which are adopted or internalized as a part of the actual behavior of the individual. *Third*, it is a *creative* force in the development of new knowledge. In the course of what follows, we hope to substantiate these claims.

Just as in preparing for any other communicative experience, would-be discussion participants should gather their materials *before* the meeting takes place. This may consist of reading, interviews with people involved in the problem, research projects, and observations or field trips. But unlike other communicative experiences, learning does not end when the preparatory research is done and the meeting is called to order. *During* the discussion, the process *continues*. Let us assume, for example, that in a given discussion every member of the group has carefully examined as many different sources as are available on the topic. As the discussion opens, it becomes obvious at once that, while in some cases the sources of information may be the same, there are different interpretations and understandings that come from different people reading the same information. The individual is thus enabled to re-assess his own reactions in the light of the reactions of others and, hence, come to a richer understanding of the materials to which he had exposed himself. He becomes more sensitive to

these materials and is now able to see them from the vantage point of many angles rather than just his own. It is as though a man who was looking at the Empire State Building from the sidewalk on Fifth Avenue could suddenly be enabled, at the same time, to see it from the top of the Chrysler Building, from an airplane overhead, from the seventh floor of a building across the street, and from an office window on the sixty-first floor of the Empire State Building itself.

Another result of this process in which discussants talk over their research materials is that a more permanent, as well as a richer, understanding is attained. Knowledge that we garner from reading books and articles, or even from observing situations, is often of a fleeting nature, lost to us after a short period of time. When we bring it into a discussion, however, and have an opportunity to explain it to others and use it in deliberating on a problem, the information loses its isolated meaninglessness and begins to fit into a pattern. It has more reality. The individual is more likely to retain that information after such an experience than he is if the experience has not been possible.

It might also be mentioned that whenever opportunities can be provided for discussion groups that are essentially of a learning nature to engage in some kind of action as a result of their deliberations, then we can expect understanding to be still greater. When decisions and action are required, the information



Through the control-room window, one sees a radio class using discussion as a tool in acquiring and using knowledge.

which members of the group bring to the discussion must be even more carefully related to the total picture and, hence, take on a higher degree of meaningfulness for the person.

Discussion, properly used, requires not only information, but also information on an *active level*. That is to say, when a member of the group has material which he feels is worthy of sharing with other members, that material must be verbalized and presented to the group. In the process, the material becomes more a part of the person who presents it. His learning and grasp of that material increases considerably. It is just like the old speaker who always had such a big storehouse of jokes to use on various occasions. Someone asked him one day how he could remember so many jokes. His answer was quick—"When I hear a joke, I waste no time in trying to tell it to someone else. The first time I tell it to someone else, the joke is one-tenth mine. The next time I tell it to someone else, it is one-half mine, and, by the time I have told it four times, that joke is all mine and nobody can take it away from me." The same is true of information developed in discussion. By the time you have discussed certain information, had it examined and looked at, even defended it or opposed it, it has become pretty much a part of you.

It is also important for us to note that (assuming that the discussion is well prepared for and properly conducted) knowledge used in the discussion process is, on the whole, knowledge which is *directed at some specific aim or objective*. This is a significant value in that it provides a discernible motivating factor for the acquisition and retention of information. A man who is going to need a hammer and actually uses it is more likely to know something about that hammer and how to use it than the man who only looks at the hammer and dreams about its function and use. So with information—a discussion situation provides an opportunity for individuals actually to use information in dealing with a problem.

We noted at the outset of this article that discussion is sometimes condemned because it is felt that it tends to be a pooling of ignorance. We wish to repeat as clearly as we can what we have several times implied—that no effective discussion can take place in the absence of information on the problems being discussed. Any teacher, therefore, or trainer in the field of discussion who fails to start out on the basic premise that information or knowledge of the subject is essential is in reality missing the whole point of the discussion method. *The method alone cannot provide knowledge or information*. It can provide an instrument, and a very effective one at that, for motivating the search and discovery of knowledge, for making that knowledge come alive, and for re-arranging it into meaningful creative patterns with deeper insight. Hence, good discussion is not only a tool in acquiring and using knowledge, it is also the result of knowledge properly acquired and well used.

CHAPTER VIII

WE DEVELOP THE AESTHETIC QUALITIES

Interpretative Reading and Choral Speaking

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PUPILS at the secondary-school level are peculiarly ready to profit by the values of interpretative reading as a maturing, adult experience. The mechanics of speedy silent reading have been studied extensively; an understanding of deeper, more complex meanings is developing. Psychologically the elementary-school pupil is incapable of reasoning except on a very simple level; to him a statement such as "Large oaks from little acorns grow" has no other than the basic meaning concerning the relationship between a seed and a tree. However, as the pupil enters junior high school and begins the processes leading to physical maturity, he also begins to develop certain mental potentialities which will enable him to function at a high level of imaginative creativity as an adult. The ability to reason and develop more complex concepts is part of his personal declaration of independence—which he must make in order to become a distinct, responsible, functioning adult.

The problems of physical maturation are simple compared to the problems of gaining emotional and intellectual maturity. It is in this latter area that interpretative reading makes its greatest contribution. Obviously, this requires a redefinition of the nature and function of interpretative reading for those who consider it only as entertainment. The unusual educational potentialities inherent in interpretative reading have not been adequately realized. It is the purpose of this statement to assist in developing a clearer understanding of its value.

From the beginning of time, we have had story tellers, minstrels and actors who engaged in interpreting favorite narratives and lyrics. In ancient Greece, rhetoricians listed *pronuntiatio* as one of the important phases of rhetoric. Since that time, many developments have taken place. Drama has been recognized as an ancient and honorable speech art, and has been brought into the educational fold. Public speaking has adapted its activities to the needs of democracy and mass education.

Science has helped to open new areas in speech and has given us techniques for more exact investigation of all the areas. Also, science has given us trans-

mission and recording devices—the telephone, phonograph, movies, radio, and television—that have re-emphasized the importance of speech as a means of ready communication.¹ More people are in contact with the entertainers, politicians, military leaders, philosophers, newscasters, men of religion, recipe-givers, and advertisers than ever before. The news, thoughts, plans, and entertainment of the world are readily available. We are surrounded by men and women attempting to help us interpret our world. Though books, magazines, and newspapers are important media of communication, speech remains man's most used and most adaptable medium and continues to grow in importance as transmission media improve. Clearly oral interpretation is being practiced as never before!

While the field of interpretative reading might, theoretically, be said to include the study and oral interpretation of all non-spontaneous—usually written—materials, it is clear that, as a specific area in the modern educational system, it has a place as (1) a service course, especially for drama, public address, radio, and TV; (2) a special way of developing a greater understanding and appreciation of the art of literature as part of the general education (liberal arts) program; and (3) a specialized course in the artistic reading of literature. Obviously, these goals and activities are not mutually exclusive; all will be found in every interpretation class. However, in practical application, various emphases and trends are noted. At the present time, interpretative reading is being utilized by an increasing number of people as *a superior means of developing an understanding and appreciation of the values of literature*. Though interpretative reading has been the least developed of the areas of speech, it should assume a more important position. The following concepts support this thesis.

1. *Literature is an important heritage.* The artist as a sensitive observer and skillful reporter has always helped man in his *recognition* of himself and his world; he has also functioned in the *revelation* of new truths. The suggestive nature of art serves to stimulate man beyond the factual limitations of logic and science. As a record of man's search for truth and understanding, literature is generally conceded to be an important heritage.

2. *This concession is not true* (a) if the best and most challenging literature is read only under classroom compulsion, and never afterwards; (b) if the highest literary art is read only by the literary specialist and the aesthete; (c) if literature is appreciated only as an art form in which skill and technique are admired. Enjoyment is one of the values of art, yet great art strives to provide "enjoyment" and interpretation beyond mere admiration. The "love of art" is too often a sterile, perverted, incomplete love.

¹ Libraries will someday store collections of audio-visual recordings. These will be much more satisfactory, especially in historical and artistic areas, than the common collections of books which record only the most skeletal of symbols, and, therefore, can give only very limited understanding.

3. *Our heritage of literature becomes significant* (a) if an appreciation of literature is developed that will stimulate reading after the formal education period stops; (b) if the best and most challenging literature is available for enjoyment, as well as the lighter or less challenging forms; (c) if the literature is studied in a manner that will permit the contributions to enter as active, stimulating parts of our lives. To admire literature as an "art object" is not enough; as part of man's struggle to communicate his knowledge and understanding, it becomes significant.

4. *Originally and basically the word was spoken* and was modified by the "languages" of action and tone. With the printing of words, some have forgotten the basic relationship that exists between the spoken and written word. The printed word is basically only a skeletal symbol for the speech symbol.

5. *The best of our literature, especially poetry, is still to be spoken and heard to attain its greatest potentialities.* Though many of us have developed skill in silent reading, in many ways it is comparable to the skill that some musicians have developed in reading musical scores. The music and the literature reach their highest aesthetic significance and suggestiveness when interpreted *via* sound waves.

6. *When one listens to good interpretative reading, he has visual, vocal, as well as verbal symbols to stimulate his imagination.* The skilled writer has only words to modify words. The oral reader has the older and more basic "languages" of tone and action to modify the meanings of words. The art content of some literature is more readily and fully experienced when interpreted by an artistic oral reader.

7. *The reader himself is the one who receives the greatest values from the interpretative approach to literature!* As he develops more effective techniques of expression, he is undergoing some of the most profound experiences of education. Active participation in the experiences of great literature can be deeply significant. Certainly this is important if art is the means whereby "man holds his life still—and looks at it," and if the intensive study necessary for oral presentation permits him to "look" with more understanding. The effort to communicate is stimulating in itself. Perhaps most significant of all is the added connotative insight stimulated by the act of actually speaking the lines. The melodies and rhythms and words combine to give the reader a more profound experience in the values of literature.

The interpretative approach to the study of literature is best utilized in specialized classes in interpretative reading or choral speaking. In most schools these activities have been reserved for a special few. If the love of good literature is important, opportunities should be extended to the larger group as well.

Even the most timid can respond effectively as a member of a choral-speaking group. The joys of the aesthetic experience combine with the pleasures of trying to express and share that experience, so that a healthy, communicative attitude is developed. The same thing happens with individual interpretations when it is realized that the goal is *shared experience* rather than personal exploitation or exhibition.

While interpretative reading has been altering its emphasis, there have also been some interesting changes going on in the teaching of literature in traditional English classes. More and more English teachers are reading aloud to their classes, realizing that the aesthetic values of challenging literature are more likely to be understood and enjoyed through this more complete and direct contact. The trend is certainly to be encouraged. However, the activity of reading interpretatively should not be limited to the teacher! Herein lies the difference between speech classes and English classes: In the speech class, the pupil *himself* does the reading aloud. The love of good literature will last a lifetime once it has been experienced. The *intensive* study which is characteristic of the interpretative reading approach has proved to be one of the best methods of developing this love. Obviously, this approach does not rule out the more *extensive* program of study in English classes. Both the intensive and extensive approaches have value and contribute to each other. However, as an introduction to the aesthetic values of literature, direct participation in interpretative reading cannot be surpassed. Also, as an activity that can be carried on throughout life, it offers training and techniques for continuing acquaintance with the highest in literary art.

Every educational leader must sometimes wonder at the weaknesses of a system which does not stimulate a lifetime investigation of man's heritage of great literature. It is a profound tragedy that this heritage has been left largely to school youth and their teachers.

This brings us back to our beginning point: The adolescent pupil has reached a level where he can profit by intensive contact with the challenging record of the best thoughts of the best minds. At no time in life is an individual more likely to respond to the inspiring revelations of literature. Idealism and hero worship are characteristic of young men and women. At this age they are ready mentally and emotionally to begin meeting the challenge of the literary record which presents man as a complex being who is seeking to know the truth. The interpretative approach to literature, which involves highly intensive personal experiences, is an approach that can yield a maximum of aesthetic values.

The Testimony of Teachers on Appreciation of the Theatre

LEONARD FREYMAN

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THE teaching of theatre in the high school is a process of developing the qualities of aesthetic tastes and judgments of appreciation of the arts of speech. This is the consensus of fifteen pupils and teachers of the speech arts in Northeastern Ohio. Excerpts from some of their lengthy and enthusiastic letters follow:

Al Martin, vice-president of the Northeastern Ohio Drama Teachers Association and drama teacher at Kirk Junior High School in East Cleveland, Ohio, writes: "... Judgments have been formed or at least have shown tendencies toward development. The pupil is surrounded by drama in some sense with the movies, radio, and television. Most of the pupils know little of theatre when I get them. When I quiz them on something they've seen and liked or disliked, their comments are usually, 'I don't know why, but I liked it.' They have judgment but no yardstick of qualities to judge good and bad theatre (used here to indicate movies, *etc.*).

"After a year I find that they make decisions on the basis of story, acting, and staging. . . . They break through the frosting, as it were, and get to the ingredients of the cake. Most of them are fond of musicals, but, by their own admission, they have learned to enjoy musicals and are not disappointed by the weak plot. This has come about because they have had some coaching on methods of guiding their judgment.

"As for theatre, each pupil in the first class in acting is given a non-royalty play (one-act) to read. These are poor plays, filled with artificial dialogue, weak plots, unreal characters, and grotesque conclusions. The subject matter is usually not deserving of the time used in writing. The pupils return the plays with such comments as: 'I didn't like it.' 'It was silly.' 'I thought it was lousy.' From here the discussion goes to the reasons for their opinions and more specific points of judgment are formed.

"I would say that, if a pupil who sees drama in many forms can find some one with whom he can develop guidance in judgment, his cultural tastes in theatre (broad sense) will improve. This should work in any of the arts. The teacher in drama should certainly be able to do this as well as suggesting, and making available, plays to read and/or see, which will improve the tastes of the pupils."

Jim Elderkin, who teaches drama at Akron South High School, Akron, Ohio, says, "... I think of L. A., who will this year be graduated from a recognized department of drama. After sleeping through half a semester, something happened to quicken interest—what I don't know. But I've seen him since in several shows, each time doing a more spectacular job. I'm sure that he has awakened his aesthetic tastes and has developed judgment.

"And I think of L. R., who turned in a final report on one of our leading playwrights that certainly showed he recognized good stuff when he saw it. I could hope that I could do that for all of my pupils, but at least the heaven is there. And now that I look at your question a second time (or third or fourth) I realize that my reply could have been stated in the one word, 'Yes.' "

Margaret R. Egeland of Amherst Exempted Village Schools, Amherst, Ohio, writes, "I believe that developing aesthetic tastes and judgments in high-school pupils is decidedly an objective in the teaching of theatre. . . . They all need to develop a taste for *what is good* for their recreation. I do my best to teach them about good authors and good productions. I mean to take them to the Hanna, the Karamu, and the Play House every year. They follow the Cleveland and New York theatres and make scrapbooks of this material. They can discuss authors, actors, producers, designers, *etc.*, and they do have a fairly good appreciation—I hope."

"The teaching of theatre in high school, says Judd D. Yeager, teacher at Woodrow Wilson High School, Youngstown, Ohio, should develop self-control and appreciation of team work in a play. Participation in a production permits physical expression which intensifies mental learning. In theatre, situations are alive and real; therefore, the best motivation factor of education."

Margaret L. Evans, now teaching at Lincoln High School, Cleveland, Ohio, and writing as teacher and student, writes, "I have not had enough experience teaching drama to enable me to speak as a teacher; but I can speak as a former pupil of Dr. Dina Rees Evans at Cleveland Heights High School. I feel that the semester project on theatre dance and ballet which I did in connection with the dramatics class, the full-length plays we read, and the one-act play we performed as a class laid the foundations for my own growing interest in all the many forms of live theatre."

Emanuel L. Gebauer, co-author of *A Stage Crew Hand Book* and teacher at John Hay High School, Cleveland, Ohio, writes, "Accepting as valid the assumptions that by the possession of aesthetic tastes and judgments we mean the ability to discern the qualities of scale, balance, proportion, emphasis and subordination, unity, and order, I am ready to say that the teaching of theatre in the

high school is to a degree a process of developing the qualities of aesthetic tastes and judgments in the student. . . ."

Janet Ann Thomas of Euclid Central Junior High School, Euclid, Ohio, a teacher of dramatics in both junior and senior high, says, ". . . Pupils gain a set of standards for judging dramatic productions they witness—television, radio, movie, stage, *etc.* It usually increases their ability to imagine, to project their voice, to control their vocal powers, to increase their powers of observation, and to challenge their creative ability. One class of pupils who thought most plays highbrow stuff ended by seeing a Shakespearean play at the Play House, and they were thrilled with it. Six girls memorized several scenes from the play and presented them to the class. This was an activity they chose."

Doris Eppinger, teacher at Roosevelt Junior High School, Cleveland Heights, Ohio, writes, ". . . Pupils learn the standards of speech which are acceptable in ordinary conversation and upon the platform. The use of this ability to speak on the platform was answered, inadvertently, by one of the teachers on the staff who admitted that she dreaded speaking on the stage, mainly because she was not certain that she was doing it as well as it should be done. She wished that such training and opportunities would have been presented in her 'younger days,' for she feels that the junior and senior high-school age is the best time to gain that experience. . . ."

Corda Peck, former president of the Northeastern Ohio Drama Teachers Association and teacher of dramatics at Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio, writes, "Appreciation of the arts of speech seems to me to be one of the valuable sources of pleasure for an adult. If he has studied theatre, his aesthetic tastes are based on standards learned in the process and are therefore keener, sounder, and more refined. It is easy to say that teaching theatre is a functional task, but the same experiences develop discriminating judgments. Surely a curriculum should always provide experience and training for those who watch and listen as well as for those who perform. As in all arts, the ones who acquire taste and understanding for the best make up the large audience which gives reason for the art and function itself."

Excerpts from the letters of Joan Kaufman, Jim Claghorne, Joan Chavinson, Margery Paull, and Tom Gaumer—all students of Dr. Dina Rees Evans of Cleveland Heights High School, Cleveland Heights, Ohio—reveal their point of view. Joan says, "I very definitely think that working with dramatics stimulates interest in the other arts. My appreciation of music, arts, *etc.* is generally more mature in viewpoint now." Margery writes, "The theatre has filled my life with beauty and knowledge, increasing my interest in all forms of art. Through the drama, I have developed an interest in people and everything they say and

do. It's difficult to come right down to it and say the effects of dramatics, but I know my life is much more enriched, happy, and complete than it would have been had I not studied this subject."

From Joan Chavinson, "Drama has increased my awareness and developed my imagination. I have become receptive to beauty, while my imagination enables me to go beyond its actuality. In a piece of music, for example, I hear the beauty of the music itself, but my imagination adds to my appreciation by coloring my thoughts and feelings as I listen. How but through drama could I find welcome in the lands of both reality and fantasy."

Jim says, "... In my case the pursuit of beauty was not initiated by dramatics, but rather the appreciation of art was stimulated and broadened."

Tom Gaumer's note is both interesting and revealing. He says, "Having only become a pupil of drama in the past year, I have been able to observe just how much it has done for me in this short space of time, by comparing it with the rest of my life. Never before had I gotten so much out of life as when I became surrounded by the wonderful environment of the theatre. I found that studying and being active in the theatre stirs the imagination and creates a great appreciation for the finer things of life. Above all, it makes one think because, in the theatre, you find many different ideas and points of view expressed, which give you the opportunity to develop your mind and thinking capacity."

This opinion summary might adequately be summed up by a statement of Clayton R. Wise, former principal of Glenville High School, Cleveland, Ohio, "I am convinced that we have not even yet more than glimpsed the very wide possibilities that exist in the high-school theatre."

Eugene C. Davis, author of *Amateur Theatre Handbook*¹ adds, "Although I firmly believe that discriminating standards of taste can be developed in drama, just as they have been developed in our schools in music and art, the progress will necessarily be slow and gradual."

The reader might by this time feel that this opinion survey is "loaded" by virtue of the fact that, other than the school principal quoted, all statements were made by people very closely connected with dramatics, who could only be influenced in favor of the initial statement. To this, the author of this article can only reply, "Who has a better right to judge?" Mark Twain was once quoted as saying, "A story about the war by a soldier who has been in it, is interesting; a poem about the moon by a poet who hasn't, is not."

¹ Davis, Eugene C. *Amateur Theatre Handbook*. New York: Greenberg. 1945. P. 40.

What the Theatre Can Do for the Personalities of Pupils

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THE high-school pupil, being neither child nor yet man, presents his teachers with some difficult problems of personality adjustment. Although he still behaves like a child, he struggles to assume adult independence. And, while he is likely to reject any approach to learning which he considers childish, he is still unable to cope with an adult verbal approach to learning.

Educators, who have experienced these complexities of the adolescent, know that a non-verbal approach to learning is valuable to high-school pupils. They know that laboratory and field work in the physical sciences and that shop work in the industrial and manual arts succeed. And they know that the success of these methods rests upon the pupils' acceptance of them as realistic. However, when educators attempt to adapt non-verbal approaches to areas of learning in which realistic problems are not easily available, they are faced with the adolescent's complaint that contrived experiences are childish. This difficulty is particularly apparent in areas immediately concerned with personality development. Even well-planned problems in student government sometimes missfire to the dismay of the staff that worked so hard setting up the programs. In many experiments in student participation in school government, the top leaders take their responsibilities seriously and do a good job. But the hall monitors and the non-office holding school citizens are likely to look upon the plan as childish and either reject it completely or accept it as a "cops and robbers" game.

If we realize the hazards of providing experiences which will not be rejected as childish, how can we help our pupils learn to meet and solve mature problems of personal and group relationships? How can we provide experiences which will develop a sense of responsibility, a feeling of confidence, and a respect for others? Dramatic participation is one activity on the high-school level which can fulfill these objectives and will be accepted seriously by adolescents.

Although nearly every high school in America has a senior class play, few schools have recognized the force of dramatics as an experience for personality development. Many school administrators look upon dramatics only as a means of raising funds for class gifts and overlook the educational values. In seeking worth-while experiences in human relations, educators should turn to dramatics because here is an activity in which the child world and the adult world merge naturally. Acting is play activity of the make believe child type. But adolescents do not reject play acting as childish because they know it is a popular adult diversion. Here is an ideal activity for personality development because it answers the problems of transition from child to adult life.

The most obvious value of dramatics in the high school is that it offers excellent training in getting along with people. Putting on any play provides innumerable situations for co-operative group action. Merging the activities of acting, scene construction, costuming, lighting, ticket selling, publicity, and house management demands the utmost in patience and understanding from all concerned. Here is an easily available, realistic problem in human relations. Tempers are lost and heated battles may ensue. But the play cannot go on unless tempers are recovered and Elaine and Beverly agree to drop their private battle and arrange the costumes in time for the curtain to go up. Although the production of any play does offer this experience in human relations, the traditional class play restricts the opportunity to a limited number of pupils for a brief period of only six or seven weeks. In order to reach many pupils and to provide long-range problems of dramatic production, we need to extend the dramatic program beyond the mere production of class plays.

Another important value of dramatic activity for high-school pupils is that of overcoming stage fright. Although the specific causes of stage fright are varied, most shy people describe their greatest fear to be the fear of making fools of themselves in front of other people. This fear is likely to be magnified in a shy person's imagination to the extent that merely standing up when others are sitting down becomes an act fraught with danger. To a shy pupil, acting a role in a play is the equivalent of asking his companions for ridicule. Obviously, this shy pupil needs to learn that laughter is not necessarily a sign of scorn. If he can be encouraged to evoke friendly laughter through dramatics, he will come to this realization himself.

Dramatic activity is particularly well suited for helping pupils overcome shyness because it is a group activity. Most shy pupils find it easier to "let go" of their repressions when they are behaving with a group than when they are behaving alone. In a sense, the fear of being separated from the group is being used to help the pupils overcome their stage fright. If acting seems silly to them, seeing others being silly helps them take the step which will include them in the group.

Too often in the production of high-school class plays, the shy pupils who might gain the most from the activity are overlooked. When the success of the play depends upon the approval of the parents in the audience, the teacher of dramatics will assuredly and quite rightly select his cast from those pupils who are already positive, confident individuals. Although this choice is wise from the point of view of public relations, it is of very doubtful pedagogical value. With enough time allowed for practice, a shy pupil can develop into an accomplished actor.¹ However, the short period of time allotted to whipping

¹ Research conducted on the college level indicated that personality maladjustment does not necessarily prevent good acting. Francis E. Drake, "A Study of the Personality Traits of Students Interested in Acting," *Speech Monographs*, XVII, June 1950, p. 132.

together a class play prevents the teacher of dramatics from giving very much attention to the personality development of shy pupils.

In producing class plays, the teacher is also faced with the danger of developing exhibitionism in pupils. Although the desire to show off can hardly be termed a healthy personality trait, many a class play has inadvertently developed such a tendency in the pupil actors. When Donna Mae, who is cast as the maid in a play, wants to wear her graduation dress, something is amiss psychologically. Actually whether a pupil becomes a little exhibitionist or a healthy, positive person depends upon his direction or motivation. If he thinks of acting as a means of showing off, he will naturally develop his exhibitionistic tendencies. But, if he is encouraged to think of acting as a co-operative activity with the objective of delivering the playwright's message, he will subordinate himself to the finished play and sublimate his desire for exhibitionism. The teacher has a difficult task in developing this attitude toward acting. And when pupils are plunged into a public performance as their first dramatic activity, their desire to show off is extremely difficult to curb.

In addition to providing opportunity for group participation and for individual personality development, dramatics can also help in preparing pupils to undertake the responsibilities of their rapidly approaching adult life. Recognizing the need to treat high-school pupils as young adults, educators have recently added courses in family life and marriage to our high-school curricula. But in developing these courses, teachers have been faced with another serious dilemma. If they use the pupils' own problems of family life, they deal with situations in which the pupils view life from a child's point of view. If they use adult-centered problems, the problems must be met on a verbal level. Thus, although the problems of the child or the adolescent will be meaningful, the problems of adults are likely to be over-simplified or unreal.

Play acting helps to overcome this dilemma by allowing the pupils to assume a closer identification with the adult in adult-centered problems. When pupils act in adult plays, they must struggle to view life as an adult. In order to dramatize such plays as George Kelley's *Craig's Wife*, Ferenc Molnar's *Liliom*, Maxwell Anderson's *Saturday's Children*, and Eugene O'Neill's *Beyond the Horizon*, the pupils must explore the psychological backgrounds of the characters. They must see why Mrs. Craig values her house and possessions above her husband's love, why Bobby in *Saturday's Children* is willing to throw away her marriage in order to regain her love affair, why Ruth in *Beyond the Horizon* turns so rapidly from romantic love to a consuming hate of the man she marries. When high-school pupils dramatize the relationships involved in these plays, they may realize that adult life is at least as complicated as the life of the adolescent.

Adult drama offers pupils the opportunity to explore an endless variety of adult problems about which young people need to learn. Pupils need to understand the problems of adults in other social and economic levels of society. They need to explore the relationships between itinerant workers in Steinbeck's *Of Mice and Men*, among sailors in O'Neill's plays of the sea, and among members of the sports world in Odets' *Golden Boy*. They also need to understand the human frailties of jealousy, greed, and bigotry as revealed in such plays as Sidney Howard's *The Silver Cord*, Lillian Helman's *The Little Foxes*, and Arthur Laurents' *Home of the Brave*.

Unfortunately, in a dramatics program limited to the production of class plays, most of the above-named plays are unsuitable. An audience composed largely of parents will strongly object to the production of these plays for two reasons. *First*, most grown ups are not likely to enjoy serious portrayals of adults by immature actors. *Second*, many parents are likely to feel that the problems involved in these plays are too mature for their children to consider. This second objection, although not particularly valid, is, nevertheless, a real objection which must be recognized by the high-school teacher. It is not particularly valid because parents are usually the last people in the world to realize that their children are rapidly growing into adulthood. Consequently, many parents are inclined to shelter their youngsters from the "coarser" realities of life. They wish to shield their children from knowing that sailors and itinerant workers use vulgar language, that many marriages are destroyed through human selfishness, that motherhood is anything but a beautiful experience.

Until adults are consistently more mature, the school must accept the limitations imposed by an audience of adults and select class plays that parents will enjoy. However, the primary job of the high school is not to cater to the whims of the past generation but to educate future generations. Consequently, the high-school dramatics program needs to reach beyond these parentally imposed limitations and provide pupil dramatic activity which is not planned for the entertainment of parents.

Many plans are possible for the extension of dramatics in high school. Probably the simplest method administratively is to organize a dramatic club with the modest objective of studying dramatic literature through acting. If a club attempts public performances in its formative period, the activity will lose its usefulness just as does a class play. Shy pupils will be neglected, choice of plays will be limited, and the personality development values will be minimized.

If instead of producing whole plays, the club members are encouraged to dramatize fifteen-minute scenes from adult plays, they will discover new pleasures from their dramatic work. One of these pleasures is the satisfaction

of creating a polished characterization. Pupils soon realize that a polished short scene from a difficult adult play is vastly more rewarding to actor and pupil audience alike than a merely adequate, hastily prepared presentation of a full evening, second-rate play.

Dispensing with public performances does not mean dispensing with an audience. When we encourage our pupils to become creative dramatic artists instead of mere exhibitionists, we need more than ever to provide them with an appreciative audience.

The development of an appreciative pupil audience, is an important end in itself. Making the early club presentations invitational affairs will add prestige to the performances but will restrict the numerical size of the audience. However, audience size is a peculiar entity. An audience of forty in a large auditorium is extremely meagre, but the same audience of forty in a small studio theatre becomes a capacity crowd. Thus because the use of the school auditorium can be the defeating element in a dramatic program, it is better to devise a modest little theatre in a large classroom or in some unused portion of the school building.



Many plans are possible for the extension of dramatics in high school. Probably the simplest method administratively is to organize a dramatic club with the modest objective of studying dramatic literature through acting.

Providing a studio theatre need not be an expensive undertaking, particularly if the dramatics teacher chooses to experiment with arena style or circular staging.² In fact, the intimacy of arena staging is particularly well suited for dramatics if the teacher desires to emphasize personality development. Because the necessity for voice projection is eliminated in arena staging, pupil actors can give their entire attention to creating convincing roles. Consequently, the danger of developing exhibitionistic habits in the pupils is minimized. Furthermore, an arena style theatre is suitable for experiments in creative dramatics which should be a part of any dramatic program for personality development.

In expanding the dramatics program in the high school, the administration should also give serious thought to further use of dramatics within the existing curriculum. Some enterprising drama teachers can experiment with co-operative programs with the courses in marriage and family life. Scenes from *The Silver Cord* or *Saturday's Children* dramatized by either members of the drama class or members of the class in family life can serve effectively as a basis of discussion for all of the class. The new Language Arts Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English will provide many opportunities to use dramatizations within the English classes prepared either by pupils in the English classes or by pupils in the speech and drama classes.

Although the opportunities are many for developing personality through dramatic activity, much of the responsibility for carrying out a successful program rests with the high-school administrator. Because teachers are human and appreciate approval of their work, they are likely to expend their efforts in the direction of approval. In directing class plays, the teacher of dramatics can always find approval both in audience applause and in the comments of parents. But, if the teacher extends the dramatic program to include projects designed to emphasize personality development, he will find little of this same kind of approval for his additional work. Consequently, it is up to the administrator to provide other kinds of approval. His approval can take many forms. Providing adequate physical space, making special funds available, arranging equitable teaching loads—these are only a few of the ways through which he can show his appreciation. But the most important recognition of all to the teacher of dramatics is the feeling that his administrator honestly recognizes the pedagogical value of a dramatics program which places as much emphasis upon the personality development of the pupil as it does upon public relations.

² Arena staging, which is gaining in popularity in America today, usually provides for an audience sitting on all four sides of the players.

CHAPTER IX

SPEECH CONTRIBUTES TO EDUCATION
FOR ECONOMIC SECURITY

Speech Plays Its Part in Occupational Success

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A CONFERENCE was in progress. The subject under discussion was the responsibility of the secondary school for education for occupational competence. Next to me sat a teacher from a large high school. At the ten o'clock "break," he said to me, "I don't know what I'm doing here; I'm a 'speech teacher!' We looked for a place to get some coffee.

"Doesn't 'speech' have a contribution to make to the occupational competence and success of people?" I asked.

"Well, maybe for the person who's going to be a lawyer or a preacher—or a school-teacher," he amended, "but for those who aren't going to college, 'speech' is just 'general education'—except maybe for those who'll be salesmen."

That teacher is missing a real opportunity to make his subject alive, interesting, and meaningful. And his pupils are missing an opportunity to acquire a skill that will help immeasurably in *occupational success* no matter what that occupation may be. The toolmaker or the bricklayer with a "good line" will not long hold his job if he does not have the technical information and manipulative skill necessary to his trade. But the skilled bricklayer who does not have realistic and superior oral communication ability is likely to *remain* a bricklayer. The same is true of the typist or the grocery clerk. All other things being equal, it is not the superior skill in the processes of the occupation which will determine an individual's advancement; it is the superior skill in oral communication—speech. It is the answers to the questions, "Can he explain clearly?" "Can he say what he means?" "Does he 'get along well' with his fellow-workers?" and it is the results of reactions after having "talked" with the candidate for promotion. Getting along with people is largely a matter of speech, expression, and gesture.

A toolmaker of my acquaintance has worked for four different companies. In each place he achieved a supervisory position. He did this, as he has told men many times, not because of greatly superior skill as a toolmaker, but because he knew how to make *words* count.

The high-school speech department has a real contribution to make to the economic security of pupils, if the educational experiences therein are adapted to *living*. Young men and women are concerned about occupations and occupational success. In the senior high school, this concern overshadows all others. Why not point out to them the place speech has in their probable occupational success—no matter what field of work lies ahead? And if some have decided on a career, why not recognize this and adapt some of the speech program for those individuals to the particular needs of their chosen occupation?

While it is primarily the professions which employ speech-making as such, all occupations require explanation on a person-to-person basis, conversation, realistic description. Speech is not usually an end in itself. It is a means to an end.

The high-school speech program—if it is to be most useful to the development of boys and girls—must function outside the ivory towers of the academician and the formalist. It must be visibly important to the pupils. One great source of information as to how this can be done is the pupils themselves. Ask them what kind of "speech" is or would be most helpful to *them*. They'll have some answers—probably not startling, surely not traditional, but important. If the teacher has the courage to take the suggestions, he may have the satisfaction of knowing he is beginning at the right place.

The teachers of vocations in the high school are another fertile source of information as to how a speech program can be made to contribute to the economic security of pupils. Ask what are the particular oral communications needs of the occupations they teach. Find out which pupils are studying those occupations. Adapt the speech program to their needs. Don't overlook the home-making teacher. Oral communication is one great factor in satisfactory home and family living. How can the speech program contribute?

Human feelings and actions are affected by speech more often than by any other stimulus. What suggestions has the sociology department for the speech program? The destiny of nations and the pattern of living for Joe and Mary are often determined by *oral* communication. Is a realization and understanding of this a part of the speech program? In living, feeling and speech and action are intertwined, as they must be in any speech program.

Local businesses and industry have suggestions for you. They are eager to help. Ask them informally or in committees, or both, what emphasis would be most helpful, in the high-school speech program, to occupational success. Suggestions from these sources, put together and analyzed, will give some real leads to the development of a realistic and lively speech program.

Michigan citizens are now in the process of telling educators what the people think of the job schools are doing. This is being accomplished through the use of an "opinionnaire." A compilation of the results from twenty-one communities of all sizes and from all areas has been made. Answers to one of the

questions shows that, while forty-five people out of every one hundred would insist on "public speaking," seven out of every ten would insist on education for occupational competence, even if it were to cost them more.

The speech program of the high school can make a contribution to the occupational competence and economic security of citizens. To make that contribution significant, the resources of the pupils, the rest of the school faculty, and the community must be used in planning the "what" of speech teaching. The speech teacher is an expert on the "how" of the program.

Speech is our greatest, most widely used, and most effective means of communication with each other. It is well recognized as an important factor in "social" success. It is an equally important element in "vocational" success.

Speech as Socialization for Life and Work

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IT HAS taken an industrial revolution to show us, in dramatic form, that a society cannot exist without language skills. It has shown us, too, that the control of language skills is a two-edged sword which acts as the very nerve center of our social, industrial, and mechanized life. In short, we have seen that the group or state which controls communication, *controls*; and that this control requires considerable know-how. What we do not see so clearly is that this is as true for the individual as it is for the group or state. And what we must see clearly is that this communicative know-how has real significance to education.

The communicative ideal is a matter of making sense out of symbols and adjusting to them with personal and social profit. This is the objective core of education. There are many facets which determine the level at which we achieve this educational objective, *but the chief among these is speech*. We propose to point out the fundamental relationships between speech and personal development, and show that he who has control of his own speech know-how also controls his own adjustment destiny. This, of course, is of prime importance to education.

Whether we talk about the infant, pupil, or adult, we know that *human beings have wants*. And one of the chief distinguishing characteristics between human beings and other animals is that man learns to gratify these wants by an extensive use of images, signs, and symbols. From infancy on, we learn to receive many of them through speech, and oral know-how becomes the core around which we begin to think about ourselves in *relation* to what we want.

Indeed, our concept of self has been built on our *relations* with others. If these relations have been successful, we think well of ourselves, and we are encouraged to maintain this satisfactory state of affairs. If these relations have been unsuccessful, we are confronted with new and oftentimes unsocial and antisocial adjustment patterns for getting what we want. On whatever side of the ledger these relations are carried, the spoken word is a focus around which they are built.

Speech *is* a social tool. It reflects personality; it can also be used to change it. We may even say that it is personality. This means that speech is more than a pleasant voice, or clear articulation, or a pointed gesture, or variety of rate, force, and pitch. It is man's way of using symbols to think and feel about himself and others. Speech is concerned with what one says as well as how one says it. Speech is concerned with man's whole motor system as he attempts to express what is going on inwardly.

Let's get down to the concrete. All of us know pupils (and adults) who criticize others, who talk too much, who fear expression and have little or nothing to say, or who show other signs of poor or, at best, mediocre social relations. Their numbers are legion. How did they get this way? Why do they use speech (or the lack of it) in such a fashion as almost to insure that they won't get from others the social responses that all humans want? How can we account for their poor speech know-how?

At the risk of being prosaic, the answers may be said to be that these pupils were subjected to inadequate understanding of speech. Their social relations were not rewarding. Who has *listened* when they had something to say or even thought they had something to say? Who has *spoken* to them with kind and sympathetic words? Who? In short, we'll answer these questions by saying that speech and speech symbols have been unrewarding *to them*, and that these symbols have become unrewarding *for them*. Their lack of speech know-how has become a controlling factor in limiting their ego development. The want or wish to cultivate real communicative know-how for successful social relations is not worth the good try—unless, of course, they get support from our educational systems.

Schools can give this support because they are the one agency which *can* offer a major change in the social structure of the pupil. Teachers can *offer* encouragement and skills in a *new* frame of reference. Educators have an almost unlimited opportunity to refine the verbal know-how of pupils so that they may operate in social circles with profit to themselves and others.

Up to this point we have suggested that a well-planned permissive atmosphere is essential for a secure personality, and that speech know-how is a natural product in such a social structure. Parental studies of children who are behavior problems, stutterers, *etc.* stress this point. And schools, clinics, and

PTA's are teaching the philosophy of "an ounce of prevention." But schools are still faced with the problem of the "pound cure." What do we do with pupils whose semi-immature personalities have jelled, and who thus find it difficult to improve themselves? Here is the opportunity for schools, and I should like to expand this point by way of an example.

I first knew John as a college freshman. He planned to be an economics major, and he fell to our lot because speech was a required course. His speaking talents were not imposing, and the records showed that he passed the course with a grade of C. John organized his speeches well; almost too well, but his delivery was tight, staccato, not fluent.

At the beginning of his second year, John decided to take all the speech electives he could, because he was *convinced* of their utility. Against his emotional judgment, he even signed up for the extracurricular activity of debate. In reviewing his college speech career, I believe this decision to engage in debate was a crucial one for him. This was the starting point where ideas and their verbal expression showed signs of unity. John's audience relationship began to be more effective. Subtle attempts at humor were found to be rewarding. These successes were the incentives for further work in speech—and, of course, on himself. In effect, John began to harness and control his ideas, and, by so



Pupils learn much through acting on the stage. A knowledge of make-up as a part of the speech course helps the pupil in his personal development. Speech is a social tool; it reflects personality; it can also be used to change it.

doing, he increased the rewards of his listeners, which in turn increased his belief in himself.

Just before John was graduated, he successfully conducted a panel on a touchy subject before his high-school alma mater. Comments were to the effect that if "John's emancipation is related to speech training, let's have more of it." John's emancipation was related to this training, and he is now starting what promises to be a successful career as an executive salesman. He is putting economics to work.

What conclusions can we draw from this example? It certainly suggests the key to all successful education—motivation and the will to work. One must *want* to achieve a satisfactory social or audience or listener-speaker *relationship* or no such goal can ever be achieved. This is fundamental. And speech is an important tool that can be used to achieve this goal of student-teacher rapport.

What we can say about John's improvement is that he learned to say better what he wanted to say. In other words, his control in the communicative process made it possible to change and improve his adjustment destiny. It might have been otherwise. But his controlled freedom in the use of voice, his apt choice of words, his ease of gesture, his light and appropriate audience touch—these all add up as evidences of a more mature person.

What happened to John can happen in degree to all pupils. In the primary grades the oral tradition can receive emphasis in share-tell groups, in creative dramatics, children's theatre, puppet plays and in play therapy, should the situation require it. In junior and senior high schools, drama classes, public speaking and discussion classes, forensic and dramatic activities, speech techniques used to implement other classes—will all help to build the oral tradition.

It is obvious that this tradition must depend upon teachers who can generate the *desire* to use speech as a social skill, and who can teach these skills in their proper *relationships* to the pupil and for his social contacts. It is obvious, too, that such a program should have the full support of administrators. They should be convinced that there is sound pedagogy in using speech to develop mature persons, so that pupils can think better, talk better, be better. This kind of communicative know-how has real significance to education because it suggests the kind of language control which benefits both the speaker and his society. It is the kind of education which makes it possible to turn a two-edged sword into personal and social profits, and thus open up new vistas in the lives of our pupils.

CHAPTER X

EDUCATION FOR LISTENING IS ALSO NEEDED

How We Teach Listening

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IMPORTANCE OF LISTENING

In our society, reading and listening constitute the basic tools of learning as well as the prime media of social intercourse. In the fulfillment of these roles, the importance of reading has never been questioned. More recently. . . the significance of listening is receiving increased recognition. . . .¹

WHEN we observe how much of our time is devoted to listening for the purposes of learning and social communication we are properly astonished at the lack of any adequate consideration of this skill by education: Rankin² found that an adult population spent forty-five per cent of its communication time in listening. A survey of freshmen students at Stephens College³ conducted during 1952 disclosed that they spent forty-two per cent of their communication time in listening. Morris and Huckleberry⁴ obtained self-ratings from approximately 1,000 elementary- and secondary-school teachers as to the amount of time they talked—and, consequently, when pupils were expected to listen—and the ratings ranged from twenty per cent to ninety-five per cent of the classroom time; with the average well above fifty per cent. Miriam Wilt⁵ also discovered by observation that elementary-school pupils were expected to listen fifty-seven per cent of the total school day.

KINDS OF LISTENING

Ralph Nichols has listed three basic kinds of listening:

1. *Discriminative Listening*—This is listening to informative material. Typical examples of this type of listening are found in classroom instruction, in receiving directions, and listening to reports.

2. *Critical Listening*—This is listening to persuasive material such as political speeches, sales material, inspirational talks, etc.

¹ Goldstein, Harry. *Reading and Listening Comprehension at Various Controlled Rates*. Teachers College, Contributions to Education, No. 821. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. P. 1.

² Rankin, Paul T., "Listening Ability: Its Importance, Measurement and Development," *Chicago Schools Journal*, XII, January 1930, p. 179.

³ Reported by Prof. Donald Byrd in a talk given at the Convention of the Speech Association of America in Cincinnati, Ohio, December 31, 1952.

⁴ Morris, D. W., and Huckleberry, A. W., "The Student Teacher's Speech," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXIX, December 1944, pp. 485-489.

⁵ Wilt, Miriam E., "A Study of Teacher Awareness of Listening As A Factor in Elementary Education," Ph.D. Thesis, Pennsylvania State College, 1949.

3. *Appreciative Listening*—Listening of this type is done when we are hearing poetry or other literature for enjoyment or appreciation.

4. We should add a fourth kind of listening that teachers of speech have used for many years. This might be called *directed listening*. The intent has been to have pupils observe and analyze speech content, organization, and presentation for the purpose of having the listener learn from the performance of other speakers. Since this type of listening is already familiar to most teachers of speech and since there are numerous charts and rating devices extant for the purpose of focusing pupil attention on this aspect of listening, no more comment will be made on directed listening.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

A. General Approaches

1. Discuss the importance of listening with pupils. Listening is "taken for granted" by the pupil; and it is desirable to discuss with the class the amount of time they are expected to listen, how much information they are expected to obtain through listening, and to tell them something about the kinds of listening.

2. Have pupils keep a record in fifteen-minute intervals of the time they spend in their communication activities. Use headings of Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing. Rough tabulations can be made by pupils and the importance of listening is revealed to them.

3. Discuss briefly with pupils the importance of attention and attitude while listening. The teacher will find numerous implications from her study in education and psychology applicable here.

B. Discriminative Listening

1. Ask pupils to state or write the main idea (purpose, thesis, topic sentence) of any talk or lecture that they hear. Be sure to include your own classroom discussions and reports by their classmates, as well as convocation or assembly speakers.

2. Ask pupils to identify, that is, to recall the main points, or main ideas, of any report they hear.

3. Read *informative* material aloud to the class and ask them to take notes that include (a) main points and (b) a statement of the central idea.

4. Since the essence of comprehension is the detecting and remembering of the central idea and important details, any listening situation which has informative material can be utilized for either an oral or a written report.

C. Critical Listening

1. Discuss the importance of critical listening; emphasize the fact that so many groups and so many individuals want us to listen uncritically and thereby gain a better control over how we think and how we act.

2. Ask pupils to list the ways in which persuasive materials may be recognized in the oral use of language.

3. Ask pupils to bring in examples of persuasion which they have heard on the radio or on the public platform, such as high-school assemblies.

4. Ask pupils to list the words to which they react most violently, without thinking, when they hear them spoken. Here is the nucleus for a definition of "danger points" in listening.

5. Ask pupils to write up the misuses of evidence which they find in class speeches, or on the radio, or in assembly talks.

6. Ask pupils to list the persuasive techniques they hear on the radio in just one day.

7. Arrange to have pupils present talks which misuse or are lacking in the principles of logical thinking. Ask the class to seek out these abuses; discuss them.

8. Ask pupils to report on the use of unethical emotional appeal in radio commercials and discuss the intended inferences that such appeals may have had.

D. Appreciative Listening

1. The approach to appreciative listening will depend on the philosophy of literature which the individual teacher espouses; therefore, the suggestions given here represent only one point of view. Read aloud any suitable piece of literature and follow it by a group or class discussion. This discussion should include the main idea and mood of the piece of literature heard. It might, if the literature lends itself to such consideration, include a presentation of associations aroused from hearing the material.

2. Play any suitable recording of a piece of literature. This may be done after having studied the material from print. Discuss some of the differences in meaning and feeling obtained from hearing and from reading the same material.

3. Play a recording, or read aloud a piece of literature; then have pupils read the same material. Discuss the meanings they have been able to obtain from the listening that make the printed literature more meaningful to them.

CONCLUSION

The opportunities for practicing improved listening ability exist in nearly all life situations. With some ingenuity exercised by teacher and pupils radio-news programs, radio and television plays, school and public discussions, and daily conversations can be analyzed for significant points of emphasis; and attention can be focused on those important details of listening, the most used of all our communication skills.

CHAPTER XI

WE HELP OTHERS IN TEACHING SPEECH

Helping the Classroom Teacher Participate in the Speech Program

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THE belief that speech instruction in high school should be the sole responsibility of speech teachers is held by some teachers of speech. Most recognize that they can secure valuable assistance in this job by other classroom teachers. This conclusion is strongly supported by evidence obtained through a recent study of speech education in public schools of the eleven western states.¹ Such evidence would appear to result from the following conditions: *First*, regardless of the extent and quality of their own speech training, all teachers exert considerable influence on their pupils' speech. This influence is felt through the classroom teachers' own manner of speaking, their use of speech in teaching, and their overt and implicit guidance of pupils' speech development. *Second*, although desirable speech habits are taught in speech classes, they require full-day practice to insure their establishment. *Third*, every departmental subject, by virtue of its content, can make some unique contribution to the speech development of youth. *Fourth*, speech and listening are fundamental to nearly every instructional method employed in the classroom. *Fifth*, reconstruction of individual behavior—the result of integrated learning—requires the best possible uses of the communication skills, primarily speaking and listening.

Appropriately fulfilling the instructional responsibilities implied in the foregoing conditions requires that the classroom teacher have basic knowledge concerning speech in its personal and pedagogical applications. The findings of Lillywhite² with reference to preparation of classroom teachers, however, indicate that the average teacher is quite unready to assume a productive role in the speech program of secondary schools. This finding is understandable in view of the fact that, until recently, the majority of teacher training institutions have not required their students to take any special training in speech. Moreover, in those instances in which speech has been required, often the type of training given has not been geared to the job requirements in speech which teachers in service have found to exist.³

¹ Lillywhite, Herold, et al., "A Study of the Importance of Speech Proficiency in Public School Teaching," *Western Speech*, 14:5-14, October 1950.

² *Ibid.*

³ *Ibid.*

It would seem that the problem of supplying the kind and quantity of speech training which will meet the needs of youth is largely a matter of teacher preparation. Most certainly, teacher candidates in our colleges of education must receive training in the personal and professional uses of speech, if possible before cadeting. However, it is fully as important that classroom teachers now in service receive guidance in speech either as a basic instruction or as a supplement to speech training received in college. Responsibility for providing this in-service guidance and instruction should be assumed by the speech teacher. Equipped as he is with special training and a primary interest in basic communication, the speech teacher can and should help classroom teachers to meet their responsibilities as teachers and users of speech and listening. This he cannot do, however, unless he is a competent teacher of pupils and is able to work happily and efficiently with his colleagues. With reasonable assurance that he has the personal good will of the faculty, the speech teacher may quite confidently take steps to help classroom teachers to participate in the speech program.

In planning his approach, the speech teacher would do well to take stock of the speech situation throughout the school. If possible, he should determine (1) the attitudes of classroom teachers toward their part in speech training of pupils, (2) the extent of speech training of various staff members, (3) the scope and nature of speech work now being done in classrooms other than speech. Having gained such information, the speech teacher will be in a favorable position to prescribe measures which most likely will be appropriate for and acceptable to the teachers for whom they are intended.

Although the total speech situation in a given school will always affect the amount and nature of help the speech teacher may give, the assistance, in general, will be directed toward helping teachers: *first*, to make departmental contributions to the speech growth of pupils; *second*, to use speech effectively in teaching; and *third*, to guide and reinforce pupils' speech development. Specifically, how may these objectives be accomplished?

First, teachers may be helped to realize that certain aspects of their departmental subject-matter can make significant contributions to the speech growth of pupils. For instance, health and physical education teachers can be reminded that their efforts to help pupils develop healthy minds and bodies are invaluable in the speech program. Good posture, poise, sound physical mechanisms, clean personal habits, and wholesome social attitudes—all are fundamental to normal speech development. Science teachers can be shown that the basic method of science—the reflective thinking process—furnishes the pupil with a fundamental orientation for much of his speaking and listening behavior.

Social science teachers need to see the close relationship between the tools of their subject and those of speech training; both are concerned with the problems of human relations and methods for dealing with them. English

teachers will readily agree that their field makes important contributions to the growth of pupils through its instruction in the linguistic, syntactical, and organizational aspects of speech. By carefully studying the nature of every instructional department, the speech teacher will have no difficulty in discovering in each area some actual or potential contribution to the speech program. Crediting departments with these contributions is an important step in helping teachers to take an active part in the high-school speech program.⁴

Second, teachers can be led into an active participation in the speech program by convincing them that proper use of speech in teaching can improve their general teaching methods. Speaking and listening, the primary methods of communication and the chief means for testing and dealing with ideas, constitute the core of most educational methods. It follows that any improvement in the use of speaking and listening in the classroom will result in some improvement in over-all method. The speech teacher, therefore, should give classroom teachers helpful suggestions regarding the use of speech as basic method. In doing this, the speech teacher will, of course, recognize that a variety of speech forms may be employed in all classrooms. In making his recommendations, however, he should be careful to suggest the type of speech activity which lends itself most readily to the nature of the subject matter in which it is to be used, as well as to the maturity level of pupils for whom it is intended. For instance, it is suggested that the method of group discussion be especially recommended for use in social science classes.

While all forms of speaking involve speaker-listener relationships, group discussion is peculiarly well adapted to the processes and problems of human interaction. By its very nature and procedure group discussion is society (a social group) in operation. In its functioning it is a convenient and practicable arrangement for studying and teaching inter-personal and intra-group relations. It makes possible the examining of obstacles to social integration and the discovery of enlightened social behavior.

Likewise, it is recommended that demonstration speaking be made an integral part of the method of physical and natural science classes. This type of speaking, whose purpose is primarily to inform, taught concurrently with listening for information, can greatly increase the efficacy of the science class in producing meaningful and permanent learning. English teachers should be encouraged to incorporate oral interpretation in their instruction in literature as a means of vitalizing the written word. All teachers will find use for formal or serious conversation in their daily lessons. Hence, the speech teacher should provide classroom teachers with suggestions for employing and effectively guiding this type of speaking.

⁴ *An Integrated Course of Study in Speech*. Olympia, Washington: State Office of Public Instruction. Pp. 6-9.

The trained speech teacher realizes, however, that merely providing speech experiences as part of daily classroom procedure may not necessarily result in pupil speech growth. Speech work, to be productive, should be planned and guided. Therefore, the classroom teacher must be helped to incorporate speech and listening goals with those of the unit as a whole. Moreover, he must be helped to select criteria for evaluating pupils' speech and listening achievement. Teachers should be encouraged to include "skill in communication of subject-matter" among the factors to be judged for determining pupils' marks for scholastic achievement.

What criteria might the speech teacher suggest for evaluating speech behavior of pupils in other classrooms? In the main, they should be identical to those employed in the speech class. These include (1) straight and orderly thinking, (2) freedom from bias and narrowness, (3) communicativeness, (4) co-operativeness, (5) adaptability in social relations, (6) social responsibility, and (7) mastery of overt aspects of speech—voice, articulation, pronunciation, and bodily responses. These characteristics may be evaluated on a scale ranging from *Excellent* to *Good* to *Fair* to *Poor*.

The speech teacher will wish to employ a variety of means for bringing assistance to the classroom teacher. For instance, when circumstances permit, the demonstration lesson may be found to be a valuable method of helping other teachers to improve their use of speech in teaching. General information can be given to teachers in staff meetings and in bulletins. More detailed suggestions regarding methods of instruction can be given through conferences supplemented by such materials as the following:

1. Sample outline for the informative speech.
2. Brief explanation of the nature of group discussion, including duties of leader and participants.
3. Brief outlines illustrating methods of preparing for oral reading.
4. Short treatment of listening, including discussion of types and methods of incorporating them in various learning experiences.
5. Sample outlines of oral paragraphs illustrating different methods of idea development.
6. Brief discussion and examples of loose thinking.
7. Lists of common faults of articulation, pronunciation, usage, and sentence sense which need to be eliminated from pupils' speech habits.
8. Copies of evaluative criteria.
9. List of basic conditions which should prevail in the classroom to promote the best social (speech) development of pupils.
10. Suggested bibliographies on speech education.

Whatever the approach, the speech teacher should be prepared to give guidance concerning (1) methods for employing different types of speaking, (2) procedures for cultivating good listening habits, (3) criteria for evaluating speaking and listening behavior of pupils, (4) methods of integrating speech and general subject-matter learning, (5) provisions for helping pupils with

speech and hearing disorders, and (6) measures for improving the classroom teacher's personal speech habits.

Other means by which the speech teacher may promote good speech in the general classroom include: taking an active part in studies aimed at improvement of methods in general and in those studies having to do with communication skills in particular, selecting and requisitioning books and other materials on speech education for the school's professional library, recommending college speech courses in which teachers might enroll, and securing from nearby teacher-training institutions speech and hearing consultants who can provide in-service instruction to classroom teachers.

These are some of the ways speech specialists may help classroom teachers to guide pupils' speech development and to make more profitable use of speech in teaching. Obviously, such assistance should never be imposed upon a faculty. Their interest in receiving it, if not at first present, should be stimulated. With strong, favorable administrative leadership and sincere helpfulness present in the speech teacher, classroom teachers can be led to want and to request such assistance. In any event, the speech teacher is advised to proceed slowly and carefully. It is hoped that observing significant speech growth in pupils who are enrolled in speech classes will be a source of inspiration to classroom teachers to participate in all efforts to extend education in speech and by speech throughout the school program.

The High School and the College Theatre Work Together

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THE QUERIES

"WHAT play should we do next?" "Where can we buy a cyclorama economically?" "Our PTA has raised five hundred dollars for lighting equipment. How should we spend it?" "Where can we get information on the Cajun dialect?" "How can I convince my pupils that 'royalty payments' are usually very much worth while and not just a 'gyp game' as they call it?" These and a myriad of other questions are every day being raised by high-school teachers the country over. Take, for example, the young secondary-school instructor who wrote to his college professor, "I have to produce plays on a proscenium framed stage which is equipped with an old cyc, stage ceiling drop-lights and a wall toggle-switch box. The eight-foot-deep platform is located on

the side of a gymnasium with a huge electric score board mounted on the up-stage wall over a permanent center entrance. It's difficult to create much of the magical illusion of the theatre in such an environment as this. Normally I'm a basketball enthusiast but not on play rehearsal nights.

"I know Shakespeare didn't have elaborate equipment, but at least his Globe Theatre was designed for dramatic production not for athletic contests. Could you tell me where I can find blueprints for making spotlights and striplights which we could build in the school shop? What is the best buy in dimming equipment for our purposes? Perhaps we can get some organization interested although at the moment there is almost no money available."

Many a high-school principal asks, for he too has problems associated with play production in his school, "Do you think we could get a royalty reduction from the publisher on our next play?" "How much financial compensation should a play director receive, in addition to her regular salary, for producing the two class plays?" "Just how much rehearsal time should be necessary in order to do a play which will be a satisfying educational experience for both the pupils and the community audience?" "What college drama courses should a play director have had in order to achieve minimum competence as a director?" "Isn't practical experience with high-school pupils more valuable than the college training which utilizes *college-age* actors only?" Such questions alone could fill many times the small amount of space assigned to this one article. And the answers—for those you would have to look in a great many places.

THE ANSWERS

Drama festivals, conferences, play lending libraries, catalogs, professional magazines, journals, and house organs supply solutions to most of these problems. But, only a few high-school and community play directors have the time, background, and facilities to keep up with all these sources of information. What many directors would like is a single place to go for answers which he cannot uncover for himself, a headquarters where he can find facts and inspiration with which to plan the year's program, or just plain assistance for getting the next show on.

College and university theatres throughout the country, while none of them lay claim to omniscience, have for many years attempted to extend their facilities to high-school and community theatre groups near them in such a way as to aid their neighbors in solving their problems. Much of this has been done informally, spasmodically, and often only upon demand; however, some thirty or forty collegiate institutions are currently carrying on an organized program of community drama service. Some of these, such as the University of North Carolina, date back thirty years. Cornell University and the University of Iowa were pioneers in this movement, and, more recently, the service ren-

dered by the University of Wisconsin, the Wisconsin Idea Theatre, has attained national reputation. Extension divisions, libraries, and academic departments supply the necessary leadership and facilities for a headquarters to which the inquiring director can go for the ideas and information which he needs.

THE PLANS

Play lending libraries represent the most common type of aid made available by these agencies. Many of the libraries also contain books on technical production, play writing, drama history, and play selection. Many of them publish recommended play lists and production lists from all the schools and community theatres in their areas. Question-box columns are often included in periodic publications of the services.

Invitations to see campus productions and college plays-on-tour provide high-school thespians opportunities to observe the work of others. An opportunity to compare their own one-act productions with those of other high schools is made possible through play festivals and contests. Critique judges evaluate their achievements and discuss with both director and actor how the presentation could have been improved. These judges often travel to local schools to render the same services.

Consultation is made available through discussion conferences and field trips by the staff of the drama service, as well as by extensive correspondence and personal visits by the director and his pupils to the headquarters of the college.

From many of these services comes aid in solving theatre business problems of royalty and promotion. Play writing techniques are explained, methods of achieving special effects in specific plays are outlined, and teaching aids for drama courses are described and their source of supply indicated. Study outlines, guest lectures, and ideas concerning the value of dramatics clubs are presented for whatever they are worth to the individual play director.

THE ADVANTAGES

It is impossible to list all the assistance which a well-organized and staffed service can give when it is conscientiously trying to meet the needs of its area. Colleges without such a program will find it profitable as well as satisfying. The reward for generous service is frequently gratifying, not only to the college theatre man who is happy to help another colleague or pupil but also to the theatre man who likes to see the enrollment build in his department as new waves of freshmen arrive from those very schools which have benefited from the extension work. What is more, many a college administrator finds he has a little more money to invest in the program, as he sees evidence of increased interest in his institution, directly traceable to such an activity.

The high-school director who needs the aid of other theatre workers (and we might say—who doesn't) would do well to locate one of these college or

university services in his area and to obtain from it as much information as the director desires by taking advantage of the types of service the institution has to offer. Not all of these headquarters are organized to supply to everyone all the types of aid mentioned in this article, but usually the necessary help can be obtained in one way or another.

THE SCHOOLS

The only printed list of schools which engage in such work (and it is admittedly incomplete) is to be found in a National Education Association brochure entitled *The Educational Theatre in Adult Education*,¹ published by that association's Division of Adult Education Service in 1951. Earlier in the same year a project committee of the American Educational Theatre Association compiled a similar directory from the standpoint of high-school education, but this has not appeared in printed form. For the most part the two listings contain the same information. Letters of inquiry addressed to the American Educational Theatre Association will bring to anyone the names of institutions serving his area. Several states have none at all while a few states have two such services.

If there is no conveniently located headquarters in an area where there is a real demand, it seems logical that a drama teachers' association could present the problem to one of the colleges in its vicinity with the possibility that such a service would be made available. Coming from an organized group, this is the sort of request most universities and colleges would not like to turn down.

A SPECIFIC CASE

Many college administrators may feel that to organize such a venture formally would require the investment of considerable sums of money. This is not necessarily true. At Bowling Green (Ohio) State University such a project was started in the winter of 1948 as a purely extracurricular activity of the writer. The response was so encouraging that a formal organization was initiated that fall with a staff of three part-time workers. The director of the service was allowed a one-third reduction in his teaching load and was assigned a graduate and an undergraduate assistant to give him aid. A play lending library was set up with gratuitous contributions of the play publishers and a complete consultation service was made available. A drama clinic became an annual fall event and a one-act-play festival was held each spring. One-act and three-act plays of the university have been taken on tour with low guarantees met by the sponsoring organization. The university theatre staff has been available for local lectures and consultations with travel expenses as the only fee. Thousands of

¹ Available from either National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D. C. or American Educational Theatre Association, Norman Philbrick, University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California. Price \$1.00.

high-school pupils and teachers have visited the campus to see university productions at reduced prices. Hundreds of letters have been answered every year, such as the one quoted earlier in this article.

The second year of its formal organization saw an increase of twenty per cent in requests for assistance. These have grown larger in each succeeding year. An additional staff member was added in the second year through the co-operation of the journalism department which assigned a senior student to the editorship of the monthly *Community Drama News*, a typical project required of journalism majors.

This "service without a budget" drew from funds for salaries and activities of the speech department, general university funds for mailing, for printing, for graduate and undergraduate assistants, free aid from the student theatre organizations, and academic co-operation from the journalism department.

The history of growth of the theatre extension service of the University of North Carolina is to be found in the National Education Association brochure referred to earlier in this article. Touring companies and regional playwriting have been major developments sponsored by that organization.

A MUTUAL AID PROGRAM

The service can be described as "a natural." It benefits the giver as much as the receiver. It is an interesting problem in high-school teaching and a real opportunity for community service. The appreciation shown by the recipients is invariably gratifying as standards of dramatic production and study gradually improve through the help of these clearing houses of theatre information.

High schools can profit immeasurably from such a service. If there is not one near at hand, the need should be presented to a neighboring institution in such a way that the mutual advantage will be apparent.

The State High School Speech League

PAUL A. CARMACK

Ohio State University

THIRTY-NINE states have organizations which serve as clearing houses for the administration of one or more speech events which are conducted as a statewide activity. Other states have plans to initiate such a program, while a few state leagues are planning reorganization. While there is much similarity in the work done by state speech leagues, each state has developed and retained features peculiar to its own needs and traditions.

Some state speech leagues arose from the impetus given them by certain individuals who felt a loyalty to the work. In other states the high-school teachers founded their own organization. Often a state university was requested to handle the administrative details which became a part of the extension division of this school. In Pennsylvania, speech and music are both conducted by the Pennsylvania Forensic and Music League. In Texas all contests—athletic, scholastic, speech, music, or other—are conducted by the Interscholastic League. Each state could be used as an example of a different variation in administration, but there is a general pattern of the kind of work done by the "high-school speech leagues."

The Ohio High School Speech League is an example which is typical of many of the state speech leagues. The OHSSL is in its fortieth year of service to Ohio schools. No high school in the state is denied membership. It arose by request of a number of high-school teachers and administrators and was organized in its present form in 1926. Professor Victor Ketcham, later the chairman of the speech department, had started work with high-school debate teams in 1913. A number of small leagues arose in the state to conduct interschool debate activities. The teachers and officials asked that Ohio State University, located in Columbus near the center of the state, act as a co-ordinator and center for speech contest work in Ohio high schools. Since the University does not have a general extension division, as such, it was agreed that the chairman of the department of speech appoint the director of the Ohio High School Speech League. A secretary has been provided to assist with the clerical work of the state league. The director and the secretary prepare a *Newsletter* which keeps member schools, teachers, and principals informed of the "calendar of events" in Ohio, collects entry fees, sets up district contest committees in the various areas of the state, and conducts the state finals forensics contests and the state finals festivals at Ohio State University.

With the aid of other colleges and universities in Ohio, a series of "clinics" are conducted early in the fall of the school year, chiefly on debate, discussion, and one-act play. These clinics give demonstrations, lectures, materials, and advice to the pupils and teachers who attend these workshop meetings on the campuses of Muskingum College, Ohio Wesleyan University, Kent State University, Bowling Green State University, Oberlin College, Marietta College, College of Wooster, Ohio University, and Ohio State University.

On most of the Saturdays during the late fall and winter, various high schools in Ohio conduct invitational tournaments in the forensic events. Any high school may choose to attend any one or more of these tourneys.

Late in February, district contests are held to select qualifiers for the state forensic finals. One school in each four entered may send a debate team to the

finals. One pupil in five entered in "individual events" (extemporaneous speaking, oratory and declamation) qualifies for the state finals. The finals are held at Ohio State University during a two-day week-end meet at mid-March. Judges and trophies are provided by the OHSSL director.

In early April district festivals are held in poetry reading and one-act play. Two weeks later the state finals festivals are held at Ohio State University in these two events and in radio announcing and radio programming. These events are rated as Superior, Excellent, Good, or Fair.

Schools are divided into "A" and "B" schools for competition. "A" schools are those with an enrollment of over 450 pupils in the upper four years. In addition to these two classes of schools, any county may set up a county league which operates as a separate district. Several county leagues are conducted by the county superintendent of schools.

Discussion is not conducted as a contest by the OHSSL. A two-day pilot discussion conference is conducted in co-operation with the University School and Professor Margaret Willis of its faculty. OHSSL has co-operated with such conferences held at other campuses and schools. It receives much assistance from the Ohio Discussion Service headed by Dr. William E. Utterback of the OSU Speech Department.

Activities of the Speech League are subject to the sanction of the Ohio High-School Activities Association conducted by the Ohio High-School Principals Association and directed by Principal Robert Fleming of Youngstown-South High School. The Ohio High-School Principals Association appoints three of their members to the executive committee of the league. The friendly assistance of the principals' association is very helpful and is much appreciated by the league executive committee and director. Some of its members have helped guide the course of the Speech League in its growth in the service of Ohio high schools.

One of the organizers (1926) of the league is Superintendent A. E. Rupp of the Cambridge City Schools, past president of the Ohio High-School Principals Association. He was the high-school principal and debate coach of Marietta High School for a number of years. On January 10, 1952, Superintendent Rupp wrote to Paul Carmack (league director from 1946-1951):

I was surprised to learn that there is a possibility that financial aid for the Ohio High-School Speech League might be curtailed. I would be hard put to name an activity in our public education program where so much good has come from such a small expenditure.

I remember when a committee of six men, representing the six teachers' associations in Ohio, met in Columbus in 1926 to set up rules and regulations for the conduct of speech and debate activities throughout the state. Representatives from Ohio State

University appeared at our second meeting and agreed to take over the leadership of this program. Prior to that, there was a host of independent leagues and debate triangles. There was bitter feeling over the methods of determining winners. Since 1926 the Ohio High-School Speech League has developed order out of chaos. We now have a common understanding as to the rules and regulations of various types of contests. Disputes over technicalities are almost unknown. The league has aided in encouraging speech activities where it was not known. To me, the league has done its best job in making high-school debate and speech work one of the few interscholastic competitions where pupils engage in competition without that bitterness that so frequently accompanies athletic contests.

Time and again I have seen competing debaters and contestants in speech activities from opposing schools come down the corridors of Derby Hall arm in arm. Some fine friendships between competitors have been formed by the activities of this speech league.

You know how I feel about high-school debating. If we like the project method of teaching, I know of no better way to advance a pupil in his working knowledge of government, economics, English, library usage, speech, etc., than through a good sound debate program.

I wrote Lionel Crocker the other day and told him that, in my twenty-nine years of public school work, I counted my debate activities at Marietta as my best contribution to education.

A SUMMARY OF THE PURPOSES AND ACTIVITIES OF THE OHIO HIGH-SCHOOL SPEECH LEAGUE

1. To serve as a clearing house of information on speech activities of Ohio high schools.
2. To organize and manage contest speaking in Ohio high schools which leads to the state championships in: (a) debate, (b) original oratory, (c) extemporaneous speaking, and (d) declamation, including oratorical, dramatic, and humorous.
3. To organize and direct the district and state finals of the one-act play, radio announcing and radio programming, and poetry reading festivals.
4. To conduct a model Public Affairs Discussion Conference. From the findings in this pilot conference other such conferences are set up. The league work is tied in with Dr. William E. Utterback's Ohio Discussion Service (OSU Speech Department).
5. The Ohio High-School League is recognized by the Ohio High-School Principals Association as the agent for high-school speech contests and festivals in Ohio. This OHSPA grants permission through OHSSL for many of the state speech activities. It is also recognized by the National University Extension Association, the American Educational Theatre Association, and the Thespian Society as the agent for Ohio representation. The National Forensic League works with OHSSL to promote forensic work.
6. The OHSSL purchases and distributes speech materials to the member schools at cost.
7. The OHSSL conducts at Ohio State University: (a) a pilot discussion conference in late November, (b) a debate clinic in mid-December, (c) a Central Ohio district forensic contest in February, (d) the state forensic finals for Ohio in March, and (e) the state drama, poetry reading, and radio festivals in April.
8. To co-operate with other state universities and Ohio colleges in conducting clinics in: debate, drama, and discussion.
9. To assist schools that wish to start speech work for the first time. We have worked with county superintendents and other leaders in organizing county speech leagues.

Suggestions for Integrated Teaching of Communication

MARGARET WOODS

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AS THE inflationary tendency in speaking and writing spirals, teachers become acutely aware of their responsibilities for teaching speech and English in the high schools. At the same time, current expressions such as progressive education, core curriculum, general education, and communication skills may tend to create semantic difficulties rather than an understanding of objectives and methods for a secondary-school curriculum. That improvement in the skills of reading, writing, speaking, and listening is desirable is one point upon which most administrators and teachers agree. No matter what a program is called, administrators should not assume that pupils will learn these skills by osmosis nor that a communication teacher is prepared to teach all its forms.

Colleges which offer courses in communication do so because entering students are inadequate in expression and reception of ideas. High schools can well ponder the need for giving more practical and more individualized help to their students. A communication program—that is, a course planned to improve the pupil's ability to communicate clearly in speech and in writing and to comprehend spoken and written discourse—may contribute to definite objectives and useful methods of teaching some fundamental skills together with opportunities for practicing these skills.

The complaint is often voiced that teachers are specialists who are unprepared to teach in a broad program of communication. The fact remains that for years some teachers have been doing just this as they realized that their pupils needed help in writing, speaking, reading, and in critical listening. The second objection often comes from teachers who feel that their primary aim is to teach literary appreciation. Although many teachers are understandably reluctant to omit a study of any of the usual masterpieces, the necessity for concentrating on teaching the minimum essentials in order to prepare pupils for college or for practical living becomes increasingly apparent. Aesthetic appreciation and self-expression are not primary goals in a program of communication. The underlying philosophy is that a teacher should diagnose pupil needs and abilities and attempt to help them communicate adequately. In many schools, better motivation for the study of good literature is a result of such a program. A communication course, then, should be practical, integrated, and individualized.

If these are the goals, what are the methods? What should the teacher attempt to integrate? There is real danger in attempting to integrate all the objectives of education in a communication program. The moot question of whether

speech skills and subject matter or speech skills and writing skills should be integrated need not present an insurmountable hazard. The important factor is improving the pupil's powers of communication and comprehension. Speaking and writing skills cannot always be integrated, but basic research or reading can often be utilized in compositions as well as in speeches. Pupils can also be encouraged to draw upon subject matter from other courses in the development of habits of thinking and organization. A diagnosis of the pupil's fundamental skills, attention to these processes, followed by their practice and evaluation in a practical situation sketches the general method.

It is the teacher's responsibility to point out differences as well as similarities between some of the fundamental processes of writing and of speaking. Choice of purpose, choice of supporting details, methods of analysis, and insight into linguistic symbolism, grammar, and vocabulary are important in all phases of communication. The necessity for discovering purpose in reading, of revealing purpose in writing and speaking, of selecting important ideas in reading, and of headlining main ideas in writing and speaking offer possibilities for comparison. Yet the mechanics of writing—that is, spelling, punctuation, and paragraphing—should be contrasted with the mechanics of voice, articulation, and visible action involved in speaking. Possible differences in motivation require recognition but not necessarily isolation. While the writer may ultimately want to see his article in the school paper, he also responds to reading his composition to the class. The speaker, of course, is interested in immediate response from a specific audience.

It is generally agreed that the main divisions of a practical course are exposition, argument, and criticism with emphasis on the first two. Special work on the use of the library and on notetaking is basic for all communicative skills. The writing of business letters and clear expositions, the recognition of the methods of logical development, the importance of evidence and its source, the importance of criteria in evaluation or criticism—all can be stressed in writing and in speaking. Pupils will certainly read exposition, argument, and criticism; they will also write criticisms of some of their reading.

Within the realm of composition, work on the fundamentals of functional grammar, spelling, paragraphing, and sentence structure can be motivated if the pupils want to elicit a satisfactory response from reading some of their compositions to classmates. Only when they have been stimulated sufficiently by reading and by discussion may pupils want to explain or argue convincingly. Then they do not want their writing to appear illiterate nor their articulation to interfere with audience response.

Recognizing that speed of reading must be adapted to the material being read and to the purpose of the reader, the teacher of communication works on speed and comprehension before expecting to achieve much in literary appre-

ciation. Awareness of denotative and connotative aspects of words can be encouraged in reading as well as by means of the other skills.

In speaking as in writing, exposition and argument are stressed. When pupils are criticized by their peers for unpleasant voice quality, unsatisfactory rate, poor articulation, lack of eye contact, they are motivated to work on these aspects in order to present their ideas effectively. Some high-school pupils observe that they learn as much from a critical appreciation of the performance of others as they do from their own speaking.

What specific assignments can be integrated or can serve as a motivation for other activities? Ever mindful of stressing the two-way responsibility in the writer, reader, speaker, listener relationship, the teacher of a communication program can assign pupils an oral report on a segment of research which they may be doing for a long paper. If specific goals are pointed out such as the necessity of adjusting the material to the audience and creating an interest in the topic, the research can serve two activities—the spoken and the written. The class will listen with some comprehensive and critical judgment if they have certain criteria in mind. Time for discussing questions of purpose of the speaker, evaluation of his sources of material, and his use of illustrations should not be cut short. Another combination assignment is a paraphrase of a choice of reading materials. While the pupil selects main ideas in reading, he also has the obligation to organize the material in writing. Reading an article which affords an opportunity for several points of view suggests assignments for both argumentative themes and speeches.

Why do many pupils fail to appreciate the works of Browning, Shakespeare, Wordsworth, or Frost? In some cases it may be that they actually need remedial reading or a more extensive vocabulary, but frequently they have no idea of the sound of a poem or a play. Dramatizing a scene or even reading a scene from a play or an excerpt from a short story enlivens the literature for the entire class. Again specific instruction and goals need to be set up. In no case can satisfactory results be achieved by the mere assignment that pupils should read aloud. It is assumed that preliminary work has been done on vocabulary, central theme, mood and characterization. An assignment of reading favorite poems helps pupils desire to bring out word pictures. This, then, gives a reason for eliminating staccato rhythm or slovenly articulation. A pupil may also be urged to construct a speech around an incident or poem which illustrates a point. Thus he is organizing a speech and also doing some reading aloud. Pupils embarrassed by oral reading may approach it more naturally as a part of a total extemporaneous speaking situation.

It is sometimes inadvisable for a pupil to divulge his written self-expression to a class, but the assignments of exposition, argument, and criticism can be read

aloud without any embarrassment to the pupil. This is particularly helpful for one who writes well, but who needs to improve his skill in reading aloud.

Many high-school pupils have had little experience in organizing thoughts for an essay test. The practice of both reading and writing skills can be assured when attention is called to significant words of essay questions; such as, *list*, *describe*, or *discuss*. Only when the pupil has grasped the directions is he ready to organize his answer. Sometimes it is helpful for pupils to rework the answers to examination questions from other classes.

The teacher in a communication program should not overlook the possibilities for assignments arising from activities such as student council, assembly and radio programs, and publications. Organizations provide a practical need for parliamentary procedure. Assembly programs give an opportunity for pupils to introduce speakers or to dramatize scenes from a play. The radio affords motivation for discussion groups and extemporaneous speeches. Some class meetings can be conducted in accordance with the rules of parliamentary procedure. Particularly, after two hours of panel or symposium discussion of a pertinent problem, a parliamentary session provides opportunity for argumen-



The teacher in a communication program should not overlook the possibilities for assignments arising from activities such as radio programs and the student council. The radio affords motivation for discussion groups and extemporaneous speeches.

tative speeches. Thus Congressional procedure is followed—the discussion in small groups followed by the proposal of solutions supported by arguments.

When further information or an understanding of attitudes is needed, panel or symposium discussion uncovers more than does the Socratic dialogue. Discussion about attitudes toward grammar, levels of usage, or standards of pronunciation are often revealing. By writing an evaluation of his weaknesses in spelling or grammar, a pupil may face his problem more objectively and analytically.

Listening to recordings of good literature not only arouses interest in interpretation but also provides an opportunity for a critical reaction. After hearing a political speaker or listening to a recording of a contemporary address, a pupil may write a criticism or prepare an oral reply. Editorials also supply current material to encourage response in writing or speaking. A specific TV program may furnish the basis for a concrete criticism.

The interview is a source of material which is not frequently tapped. The pupil needs preparation for this speech performance, however, if he is going to be successful in getting significant and colorful data for his speech and for his theme. The writing of business letters can often be correlated with the interview.

At specific times of the year, pupils become curious about problems of etiquette. After a discussion, they may agree to investigate questions of introductions, obligations to chaperones, or table etiquette. The problems which mean something to high-school pupils are the best sources of material for writing and for speaking.

Recognition of slanted writing, figures of speech, or types of evidence can be gleaned from reading speeches from modern collections such as *Vital Speeches* or W. W. Wilson's yearly publication of *Representative American Speeches*. These models offer not only ideas but also a study of techniques. It is important to select speeches in which high-school pupils are or can become interested.

The assignments suggested do not in any sense attempt to be definitive but rather provocative. Neither is there an implication that assignments should be haphazard. A gradation of work on the fundamental processes of communication is extremely important. Basic to all this is the philosophy that subject matter from other courses and from problems peculiar to high-school pupils provides stimulus for practical work. The assumption that assignments are well motivated and that they have been presented with definite aims for the pupil is a fundamental concept. The important goal is both effective communication and effective reception of ideas.

CHAPTER XII

THE SPEECH PROGRAM CAN BE ADAPTED TO VARIOUS SCHOOLS AND TYPES OF CURRICULA

Speech in Oelwein Senior High School

HORACE HOOVER

OELWEIN is a small town in northeastern Iowa. Our three-year senior high school has a student body of 250 and a faculty of seventeen. Speech holds an important position in our curriculum. A full-time speech teacher is employed.

It is our firm belief, and an important factor in our philosophy of the teaching of speech, that speech is for *every pupil*, either as correction, enrichment, or development of skills. We believe that we should:

1. Train our pupils as much as possible in the understanding and correct utterance of sounds of the English language—pronunciation, diction, and articulation.

2. Do our best to train pupils in the art of thinking—on their feet in particular—and in thoughtful listening.

3. Encourage our pupils to cultivate and maintain poise and self-confidence.

4. Look for talents among members of the class and develop these talents.

5. Do our best to help pupils diagnose and overcome both functional and organic speech difficulties as much as possible—a speech correctionist shares his time among schools in our county.

6. Encourage pupils to seek enjoyment and recreation through speech activities.

7. Provide experience for speaking in public.

With this philosophy in mind, four speech courses have been established in our high school.

Fundamentals of speech is a one-semester course—elective for tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades. In this course, the pupils study the vocal mechanism and voice qualities with an aim of making themselves conscious of their individual needs. Short speeches are organized and practiced to improve articulation, correctness in grammar, choice of language, and communication. A small amount of pantomime, interpretative reading, and dramatics are included to develop ease and poise in speaking before a group. Practice is given in applying for a position, conducting an interview, introducing friends and platform guests, conversation, impromptu speaking, panel discussions, dinner programs, and elementary parliamentary procedure.

Advanced speech is a one-semester elective course also. It is a continuation of the fundamentals course. In it pupils are given many opportunities to participate in various listening and speaking situations.

A one-semester survey course in *dramatics* provides interested pupils with an opportunity to take an active part in the acting, rehearsal, and production of a play. Dramatic literature is read, a play selected, cast rehearsed, and play produced. The organization of the theatre is considered. Pupils design and build scenery and costumes, plan and carry out advertising and elementary stage lighting. The purpose of the course is to satisfy the pupil's interest in *dramatics* and to help him grow in physical poise, cultural appreciation, social co-operation, responsibility, and loyalty to a common enterprise. The course is elective for juniors and seniors and fundamentals of speech is a prerequisite.

A one-semester elective course in *debate* is also offered. In this course, pupils are taught respect for logic and reasoning. An attempt is made to sift propaganda and to encourage pupils to read widely on all sides of controversial issues. The high-school debate question is applied to each unit of study and debate briefs are built. Debate is recognized as a formal testing technique for controversial issues. Much class time is devoted to discussions and discussion techniques. The ultimate aim of the course is to teach the pupils the techniques of research and the value of logical reasoning and factual information and to present organized material clearly and forcefully.*

Our pupils participate in the contests of the Iowa High-School Speech Association. Neither our pupils nor teachers feel any pressure to win in these contests, but they enjoy the stimulus to one's pride to do well.

We have organized a speakers bureau and proved it successful—pupils prepare to go into the community and speak to organizations on topics of timely interest. Pupils and teachers of history, English, typing, and library work together in collecting, clipping, and filing source material for our speakers bureau. Rotary and Lions Clubs now call upon our high-school pupils to speak on such topics as "Where Are the Great Men?" instead of "How I Enjoyed Visiting Rotary!"

We have a speech check of every pupil in our elementary schools and a follow-up corrective program directed by a trained speech correctionist. We have a crying need for a required speech course in the junior high school. We are endeavoring in high school not to make actors and debaters of our youths, but to correct defects, encourage discussion, teach poise and voice quality, and develop the ability to stand on one's feet and communicate an idea. We are attempting to carrying speech beyond the course classroom and into related fields.

The physical facilities in the school are adequate for our speech program. The well-lighted and decorated classroom is large enough to seat comfortably the class and allow room for exercises and project work. It contains a speaker's stand,

a growing library of plays and speech books, copies of the recently revised Iowa courses of study in *Speech* and *Dramatics* and a recording unit. Although our stage is shallow, it is located in an auditorium above the gymnasium and is suitable for our all-school plays.

Although the administration is sceptical and slow in making advancements in the department, if value and cost are put on the balance and value tips the beam, we get what we need. Through concentrated effort at the beginning of the school year, events and rehearsals are so arranged that all of our departments have operated in complete harmony. An analysis of the speech program in our small high school has led us to believe we have progressed slowly in the right direction. We are not satisfied that we have reached the best program, but we plan to continue examining our program critically.

WHAT MAY WE ACHIEVE?

One might begin with the first day's activities in speech and emphasize the means and importance of getting acquainted. The year's program will be enriched if, during the first class periods, the pupils are allowed to move chairs into small conversational groups and converse with each other that they may become acquainted not only with names and faces, but also with likes and dislikes, interests and hobbies, what one reads, where he has traveled, *etc.* If time and space permitted I should like to discuss fully how this one activity aided in the remarkable social adjustment of a speech defective, a spastic, an extremely slow learner, pupils from the "west side," and average exuberant youths.

This opportunity is only a beginning, for we have a semester or a year ahead in which we won't have to worry about the "angle of the feet" or "long vowels," but Mexican girls can tell us about Mexican food, and some noon, under their supervision, together we may prepare a Mexican lunch at school. An Italian boy can tell us about different customs and philosophies of his home life. We may be very interested and surprised to find that neither of his parents speaks English, that he didn't either when he started school, that his parents arranged for his marriage when he was a child, and that he is having difficulty in making it clear to them that he is an American and that Americans think for themselves. We may be shocked to hear him say that he feels embarrassed and ashamed when he has to go with his mother to the grocery store to translate her order for the clerk. He can explain a lot about why pupils from the "west side" don't attend school social functions, and we can plan and sponsor an all-school party. The planning together will enrich many speech activities, and the social responsibilities as hosts will answer some of our major social objectives.

We, in speech, have an enviable opportunity to integrate our subject with the rest of the school's program of studies. Pupils who have biology reports may organize material in speech class; social studies problems will be excellent topics for group discussion; favorite selections from literature will offer material for oral interpretation; mathematics may be applied in figuring for ordering and constructing scenery; drafting pupils may make scenery working drawings; art pupils may design sets, stencil scenery and costumes, or illustrate speeches with pictures and graphs; shop pupils may construct stage scenery and keep us all informed as to why they followed a particular procedure.

Our interpretative readers may visit the hospital or elementary school to read requested literature from the *Bible* or *Billy Goat Gruff*. Our wire recorder will be fun to use in progressive work both in formal and informal speech.

Many of the pupils will take part in our speaker's or entertainment bureaus and share their views of "football prospects" or "presidential timber" with the city's Rotary, Lion's, or Ladies Aid.

Choral reading makes poetry fun, if handled carefully, so we can conjure up some rhythm with the "Congo" or "General William Booth," or popularize Iowa poetry with "The Movers," "Clover Swaths" or "Slip-Shoe Lovey." We may listen to some recording of Marjorie Gullan's choir and find that our chorus isn't perfected, but that won't stop us from trying an artistic production of Archibald McLeish's "Air Raid" if we desire. Maybe the band and chorus will join in, or even the girls from the dance studio.

There are numerous other enrichment activities we use in speech, too—pupil announcement broadcasts over inter-room PA system, record MC's parliamentarians for school clubs and council, *etc.*

We have some physical enrichment materials, too. The wire recorder has already been mentioned. We don't use a text, but each year we select a few new books to be added to our growing classroom library. We have a vertical file of speech material and a clipping file of bulletin board materials including pictures of bodily action, facial expression, gestures, posture, costumes, room decoration, make-up, *etc.* We, of course, have an attractive bulletin board near the front of the room on which these pictures may be displayed at appropriate times. We only have one world map, but we may borrow others from the social science department. We have an easel for displaying charts and graphs during speeches and a table for model displays, blackboards with colored or white chalk, an arc slide projector, a sound movie machine, and a record player.

We're going to be so busy we won't have time for discipline problems. We may be a little noisy at times, but only in the hum and bustle of people at work—not mischief.

The Speech Department in the Yankton Public Schools

A. P. SCHENCK

SPEECH, in the Yankton, South Dakota, public schools, cannot be said to be complete, nor even a model for other schools. It is, however, we hope a beginning in the formulation of a well-rounded speech education program for the public schools of this city. Speech includes public speaking, forensics, dramatics, declamation, and speech correction. These areas are considered as distinct units in the high school, but are combined in the elementary- and junior high-school level.

Public speaking in the elementary school has been in a state of change for the past several years. Our experimentation has led us to begin speech as a subject as far down as the fifth grade through the eighth grade. In addition to the regular class work we have attempted to provide constant outlets for these pupils in actual public speaking. The PTA, service clubs, school assembly programs, and other organizations have a vital part to play in providing speech experience. Wherever possible, the community speech experiences have been "real life" experiences. When the city faced school building projects, the speech department assisted in conveying facts to the public through speeches and discussions. The question of whether the city needed new school buildings became a debate proposition in the seventh and eighth grades and was debated publicly a number of times. These two grades also prepared a radio script on this topic and participated in a radio broadcast.

As previously indicated, speech is part of the curricular work and includes units on pantomime, public speaking, declamation, debate, discussion, choral reading, and dramatics. Our experience seems to indicate that pantomime is a convenient and less frightening prospect for the beginning pupil in speech in the grades. From pantomime to one- to two-minute speeches seems to create favorable reactions. Declamation follows as the third unit with actual contest experience. Our present experience suggests that more emphasis needs to be given to manuscript reading, story telling, poetry reading, and other related activities. In debate, pupils formulate their own debate propositions and interclass debates determine a school championship through the debate tournament. "Winning" forms an insignificant part of the debate unit. A number of interclass debates have arisen spontaneously as a result of discussions in other classes on topics of current interest. For example, eighth-grade pupils suggested an interclass debate on the subject of universal military training. Several discussions were held, during which time important issues and a debate proposition resulted.

In dramatics, our limited experience justifies only tentative conclusions. There does seem to be some evidence that play writing is not beyond the abilities of the seventh- and eighth-grade level. Writing a short one-act play in class has created interest beyond anything anticipated. Prospects of actually playing the scripts they have created has added to the interest. A blackboard and a pupil desk secretary to record the lines suggested plus a moderator to maintain order seems to be adequate for the mechanics of the work. The unit began with a general review by the instructor of what constitutes playwriting. Pupils then suggested situations for the play—that having been determined, careful analysis and recording of character sketches were suggested. The actual writing began when all pupils felt certain that they knew the situation and the characters with whom they must enact the situation.

At least one of the better scripts has been scheduled for performance during the annual spring elementary-school speech assembly program. It may be added here that this assembly program is organized and conducted throughout by pupils, for pupils. A variety of meritorious student performances in classes and outside classes during the year form the basis for this speech assembly program.

The high-school speech program includes a beginning speech course of one semester during the sophomore year as part of the English course. This course is required. An advanced speech course is offered as an elective. This course entails actual public speaking whenever and wherever possible. Students engaged in public speeches throughout the city during the Red Cross Drive. All information necessary was furnished by the national office of the Red Cross, and local representatives provided the speech department with information on the local level. All names, of course, are fictitious. The speech department had been requested to provide a minimum of twenty speeches for the drive. All speeches were checked in class before they were performed publicly. Pupils have come to regard the class as a clinic, the public performance as a challenge and a test of their abilities. A unit in dramatics forms part of the work since the teaching staff is limited.

Forensics consists of beginning debate and advanced debate as two distinct elective courses. Discussion, original oratory, extemporaneous speaking, and related activities also receive emphasis in these courses. A National Forensic League Chapter acts as a nucleus for high-school speech activities. Service speeches in the community and a modestly developed competitive speech program have been considered essential to the overall program. Wide participation characterizes the speech program and supports and justifies the expenditures for such a program.

Two class plays and a homecoming pageant provide the basic emphasis in dramatics. In addition, one-act plays for assembly programs provide an outlet. Our experience, as in many other schools, seems to suggest a departure from

traditional class plays to the more convenient and valuable all-school plays. Though the junior class play provides a ready source of revenue for that class, it does not necessarily provide the most valuable outlet for dramatics.

Declamation experience at the high-school level suggests increasing need for interpretive reading, storytelling, poetry reading, manuscript reading, and other activities of a similar nature.

In the area of speech correction, a working arrangement with Yankton College has proved highly satisfactory. College students majoring in speech and registered in a theory and practice course in speech correction are given actual experience in speech therapy in the public schools. These students are under the supervision of the college and high-school speech directors. A hearing testing program has been conducted with borrowed equipment. The impetus of this program in the college and public schools has resulted in the purchase of modern hearing testing equipment by a service organization in the city, and plans have been made for periodic testing.

Outline of the Speech Program at South Saint Paul

R. J. HAPPE

THE following is an outline of what the South Saint Paul High School in Minneosta offers its pupils in the way of organized education. This three-year program provides opportunities for high-school pupils not only as a definite part of the regular program of studies but also as a part of the extracurricular program.

CURRICULAR PROGRAM

1. *Fundamentals for Sophomores*

All sophomores are required to take one semester of speech fundamentals. There are ten sections (five sections each semester).

2. *Debate*

Each pupil who participates in interscholastic debate for two years or more receives one semester of credit.

EXTRACURRICULAR PROGRAM

1. *Debate*

There are usually about forty debaters participating each year. Pupils begin working in September, have practice debates in October, and attend practice debate tournaments in November, December, and the first part of January.

The state league official tournaments are held the latter part of January and the first part of February. All debaters are assigned to either one of two hours during the school day. There are about twenty in each of two groups. We attend from six to eight tournaments a year and have three tournaments here at South Saint Paul. Usually, twenty to twenty-four debaters participate in each tournament. Participation is assigned so that each pupil has about twenty debates a season. The first team (four debaters) sees little action in the "open" tournaments as they can get their full share of participation in the tournaments that allow but four debaters per school.

2. *Speech Activities*

Although there is some participation in oratory and extempore speaking before February 15, most of the speech work begins after the debate season. Most of the debaters either write an original oration or prepare to enter extempore speaking (some do both). Others enter discussion. In addition, there are forty to fifty people who participate in interpretative events. These pupils have not been debaters. Thus, there are about one hundred pupils taking part in speech activities from February 15 to April 15, the date of the final state festival.

An Intramural Speech Festival is held the first part of March to select those who will enter the official contests. Usually about thirty-five to forty are selected from the original one hundred. Just a week prior to the first official festival (district), an invitational speech festival is held at South Saint Paul. All of those selected from the intramural enter this practice festival. About twelve schools are invited. We hold contests in extempore speaking; original oratory; humorous, dramatic, and poetry reading; and discussion. All are state league activities. All pupils rated "Superior" in the district festival go to the regional festival, and those rated "Superior" here go to the state festival (about April 15).

3. *Remedial Speech*

After April 15, additional training is given to pupils who wish additional work in speech over and above what they received in the fundamentals class, but feel that they are not qualified to compete with those who aim for the official interscholastic festivals. This program lasts six weeks. The instruction is given during their free period. An intramural festival is held for them and awards are given.

4. *Speech Correction*

A full-time speech correctionist is employed for this work.

TEACHER LOADS

The director has two hours a day (five days a week) of speech fundamentals, and two hours a day for debate groups. He devotes an additional two hours a

day for debate groups, extracurricular speech, and remedial speech, in that order chronologically except that all debaters are in two groups. Another teacher has two classes in radio speaking and three classes in sophomore speech fundamentals. He directs the senior class play and also the one-act play for the state league One-Act Play Festival. A speech correctionist is employed who devotes full time to this work. Another teacher acts as assistant debate coach and director of the junior class play. He teaches five classes in American history and helps the debaters on Saturday tournaments. Sometimes two separate tournaments are attended in one day.

MINNESOTA STATE LEAGUE

The league holds contests in debate on the regional and state level. Participation in the state is determined by proportional representation. One of every five schools participating in each of the eight regional tournaments goes to the state tournament. The state league activities are: (1) original oratory—ten minutes for juniors and seniors; (2) original oratory—five minutes for freshmen and sophomores; (3) discussion; (4) extemporaneous poetry reading—five minutes; (5) extemporaneous prose reading—five minutes; (6) dramatic interpretation—ten minutes—manuscript; (7) humorous interpretation—ten minutes—manuscript; (8) extempore speaking; (9) one-act play; and (10) original pantomime.

THE NATIONAL FORENSIC LEAGUE

South Saint Paul maintains a strong chapter. Debaters attend three pupil congresses a year and thus argue twelve different topics in legislative debate. Outstanding "congressmen" and "senators" are elected to a national congress. A district speech and debate tournament is held in April from which winners become eligible for the national tournament held each year in June. Each chapter may enter a debate team and ten speech pupils in the district tournament.

Speech in a New York City High School

JACOB B. ZACK

SAMUEL J. Tilden High School is located in Brooklyn, New York. Our high school is a large urban secondary school which normally operates on a double session. At present, because of temporary conditions, we have a triple session. The speech program operates on four levels: (1) the clinical program for the speech handicapped, (2) a term of speech for selected pupils, (3) the elective classes in the speech arts, and (4) the extracurricular activities.

THE CLINICAL PROGRAM

Pupils may be assigned to speech clinics in one of two ways. The speech improvement teacher in the elementary and junior high schools which feed our high school make recommendation for further therapy when they deem it necessary. They send to us the speech clinic record card of the pupil which contains all pertinent data including diagnosis, previous treatment, quality of achievement, and case history. On this card, which is used uniformly at all levels of the school system, they state what should be done. These recommendations are honored automatically. These pupils are located immediately and programmed.

Every entering pupil is given a speech test. These tests are conducted by speech teachers who have been carefully briefed. They have examined typical cases in committee so that they can make reasonably uniform diagnoses and recommendations for therapy. A card is made out for each pupil. On it, the teacher records highlights of every individual's speech and his potentialities for the elective program.

Pupils are grouped according to speech difficulty so that the clinics have homogeneity. Classes meet within the school day in order to make speech correction as much a part of the educative process as any other subject. Credit towards graduation is given for attendance and grades, based upon effort and achievement, are recorded. The purpose is to regularize this type of instruction. We discharge pupils from clinics whenever it is indicated.

New Americans are grouped in a special class which meets for two periods each day, a total of ten periods every week. The teacher, who is very skilled, gives them instruction in basic English and speech. They are released into the general stream as they become effective in English, although they continue to attend one period a day until their accents are overcome or further training is unwarranted.

Stutterers attend a special clinic daily. They are dropped, returned, kept under surveillance, or discharged permanently as seems advisable. As is true for all other clinical cases, the chairman is consulted and advised about individual pupils.

Classes meeting twice a week are maintained for the hard of hearing, serious lisps, and bad voice inadequacies. Classes meeting once a week are scheduled for less serious lisps, voice inadequacies, and articulatory problems.

A speech clinic record card is kept for each pupil. It is filed in the speech office where it is consulted by the speech teachers. The card is confidential and may be seen by no one else.

THE SPEECH TERM

At the time of the speech test for entering pupils, the examining teachers evaluate the speech of each person and record a rating on his card. Those who fall

below the standard of good speech for our community are given a course in speech in the third or fourth terms. Toward the end of their fifth term, they are surveyed again. A second term of speech is given in the next semester for those whose speech continues to be markedly below the standards of the community. Several classes are organized for these pupils. Much is made of the importance of speech training. Our young people know that the principal may refuse to recommend them for graduation if they have failed to make a serious effort in speech classes or in the clinics.

ELECTIVE COURSES

Our elective program covers most of the speech arts. We have classes in the following: dramatics, public speaking, radio and television, group discussion, and dramatic workshop. The group discussion course is handled in an interesting fashion. The instruction is shared by a social studies teacher and a speech teacher. They meet the class on alternate weeks, each contributing from his special skills and complementing the work of the other. They consult frequently on the curriculum, the special needs each has uncovered, examinations, and marks. This program has been very successful. Jointly, they stage discussions for assemblies, parent organizations, and special occasions. The school participates actively in the city-wide program of developing discussion leaders. The course in radio has been extended to include television. The enlargement was compelled by the prevalence of television sets in the pupils' homes. Many of them have stopped listening to the radio entirely.

The elective program is open to pupils of better than average academic accomplishment. They must meet a reasonably high standard of grades in English and speech. They make application to their English or speech teacher who recommends them as qualified by scholarship and potential ability. In exceptional cases, these prerequisites will be waived when the teacher feels that the pupil should be permitted to take the course despite his failure to meet the prescribed standards. Such instances are discussed by the teacher and the chairman and a special ruling is made. We are constantly reviewing the elective program to see if it is meeting the needs of the pupils.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

We attempt to provide a diversified program of extracurricular activities which will permit pupils to develop talents and explore interests intensively. Participation is, of course, on a voluntary basis. Our Dramatics Society is an active organization. Its membership consists of pupils who show talent in any of the aspects of acting or play production. Usually, these pupils have taken dramatics, but this is not required. The society stages plays for assemblies, other school organizations, and special events. Once a year a varsity play is presented under the direction of the faculty adviser of the Dramatics Society. In the alternate

terms, the music department stages an operetta with the assistance of a speech teacher who does the staging and the direction of spoken dialogue.

The Speakers Bureau is a vital organization of the school. Members are selected from volunteer applicants. Graduates of public speaking and group discussion classes are especially welcomed. This group handles all announcements in official classrooms. The organizations and the administration of the school channel all such information through the bureau. These students handle many other assignments. They read the Bible at assemblies; they provide speakers for other organizations; they supply personnel for assembly programs by other clubs and department; they provide assistants for speech correction teachers who want to assign individual help to special pupils. The last is especially helpful in the work with new Americans.

All elective classes have direct channels to extracurricular activities which expand the program begun in the classroom. The teacher of the radio and television course maintains an informal organization which produces radio scripts for special occasions such as honor teas and assembly programs.

For the newly entered pupils who cannot attend the meeting of these organizations, a speech teacher supervises the Talent Club where gifted students may develop any creative ability in the speech arts. Finally, speech teachers coach the commencement speakers and all entrants in speaking contests, discussions, and poetry readings. This listing can be suggestive only. So many of these activities are undertaken that one forgets a number in attempting to enumerate them all.

Our philosophy is to provide for every pupil at every level of the educational process. This extends from the remedial to the creative. We find ourselves constantly adding to the things we are doing and looking for ways to find the time and personnel to undertake others. Somehow or other, we find very little that we can, in good conscience, drop from the roster of what is worth while.

A View of the Speech Department of Mark Keppel High School

HAROLD E. SALISBURY

THE speech department at Mark Keppel High School in Alhambra, California has four major divisions, the core of which is the freshman course called fundamental speech. Each of the other three divisions consist of courses containing four or more semesters of specialized speech training in radio, debate, and drama.

Fundamental speech (six teachers) is required for graduation, and is generally taken in the freshman year. The major objective of this course is to help the pupil develop speech habits that will prepare him better to take his place in a talking society. The activities in fundamental speech are based upon the common philosophy that every speaking situation is a problem in communication. The major emphasis is on the development of the *total* personality. A speech diagnosis is a very important part of the program. Every freshman in the school has this opportunity within the first five weeks of his experiences in fundamental speech. When the three hundred or more interviews are completed, each one of the six teachers in the department has in his hands a rather extensive report on every pupil in his fundamental speech classes. Without taking the time for individual diagnosis, the teacher has information which will indicate who needs what specialized training.

The school district provides Mark Keppel with two speech correctionists. They are not technically under the administrative jurisdiction of the speech department, but the above-mentioned diagnostic program is only one example of the excellent rapport which exists between them. It should be noted that *speech* is considered by this department as a means of "getting at" problems of personal growth rather than as a *subject*. Perhaps the following list of activities will indicate this emphasis: (1) The voice diagnosis, (2) "Hear yourself as others hear you," (3) Various types of conversation, (4) "Let's have a party," (5) "Let's have a dance," (6) "Tell us about your hobby," and (7) "Tell us a story."

The radio division (one teacher) has the primary objective of developing skills in the approved techniques of American broadcasting, announcing, and production. The department has good recording equipment, and most of the programs "aired" by the advanced radio classes are transcribed for use by other classes in the school. There is a remote program "piped" directly to the cafeteria, daily, at the noon hour. In the near future, it is proposed that KHS will go on the air with an FM transmitter. As soon as funds and space are available, present activities in the specialized field of TV will be expanded into a more complete offering.

The debate division (two teachers) perhaps should bear a longer title; such as, debate, advanced public speaking, and general forensics. It is a course designed to meet the needs of pupils who desire to take advanced work in all fields of speech other than radio and drama. The course of study is so designed that instruction and practical experience are made available according to the desires of the pupils.

The drama division (two teachers) offers four semesters of dramatic activity covering the personal skills of the actor, the technical aspects, production experience, and a rather complete coverage of the history of dramatic literature.

As is true with the other divisions of the department, the major objective of the division of drama is to help the pupil develop speech habits and skills that will prove an asset to his personality. The customary limited objectives are considered to be only secondary.

A very important feature of the drama division is its separate offering of three semesters of *stage mechanics*. There are two sections of this course open to boys, beginning with the eleventh year. In these classes, the boys design, construct, and paint scenery for the three major annual productions of the drama division; set up and operate light plots for all presentations on the main stage, and assume responsibility for the efficient operation of the stage for all assemblies. It is the major objective of stage mechanics to provide opportunities for the administration and performance of the backstage activities involved in assemblies, musical programs, talent shows, and plays.

The scope of this department is the product of several years of concentrated effort by teachers and administrators who have shared the common belief that the development of good speech habits is essential to the growth and development of the personality of the pupil.

Speech in Newport News High School

DOROTHY M. CRANE

NEWPORT News High School (Virginia) is a five-year school including grades eight to twelve. The school has a faculty of six full-time teachers in the department of speech and drama, thus making it possible to develop a good schedule of classes. In the eighth and ninth grades, all pupils are required to take Speech 1 and 2, alternating with music. For instance, a pupil has speech on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday and music on Thursday and Friday. Half way through the semester, this is reversed and he has speech Monday and Tuesday and music on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday. The first semester of the eighth grade is occupied primarily with oral reading since it has been found that there is a great deficiency in that subject in the high-school years. Emphasis is laid on poise, pronunciation, enunciation, and expression; and all types of subject matter are read.

Speech in the second semester of the eighth grade deals with simple speech situations such as telephone conversations, interviews, group discussions, and very simple speech making. Emphasis is placed again on poise and the ability to appear to good advantage before an audience. The first semester of the ninth grade is taken up with slightly more formal subjects, such as introductions, speeches of thanks, pep assembly speeches, and other fairly simple situations. There is also a unit on parliamentary law. The course for the second semester

of the ninth grade is more advanced. Here pupils are required to learn the correct method of outlining and to prepare at least one speech of some length.

After the first two years in this school, a pupil may take two more elective courses in speech. Each of these meets five days a week and carries the regular amount of credit. Speech 3 deals with more-advanced types of speech of all kinds, including argument and simple debating. Speech 4, a radio class, includes not only the study of the fundamentals of radio and television, but also the production of broadcasts every Saturday over local station WGH. These programs are written, directed, and produced by the members of the class. The results accomplished by this group are extraordinary; and, while the class is comparatively young, a number of its members have already begun careers in radio.

The other courses in the speech arts department are in the field of drama. Here a pupil may take Drama 1, 2, 3, and 4. Drama 1 and 2 are the fundamental courses covering the usual range of subjects, specializing in the development of the voice, body, and poise. Drama 3 is primarily a directing class, although there are units in history, makeup, reading, *etc.* The pupils of this class direct the plays for the annual intramural tournament. They are completely responsible, having no adult supervision in this undertaking. Drama 4 deals with the modern theater, dramatic readings, *etc.* Its chief project is writing a one-act play. Many of these plays have been produced for senior class nights or assemblies. Several very good scripts have been produced by the class.

Another part of our speech work is to help those pupils who have defective speech. A survey is made to locate these pupils. They are then taken privately once a week for remedial work.

The general impact of the speech arts program on the school has been an increased development of voice, speaking ability, and leadership ability. With the required work, no pupil misses training in this important field. Our talented pupils have unusual opportunities to continue in the field of their major interest.

A Flexible Speech Program

EVELYN STEADMAN

THE adjective which perhaps best describes the speech program of Hattiesburg (Mississippi) Senior High School is "flexible." This term of course has both its desirable and undesirable implications, for a program that is flexible, while yielding readily to changing conditions, may face the danger of becoming so elastic that its strength may be lost and so pliable that its firmness may become lax and shallow. Every effort has to be made not only to maintain

adaptability, but also to prevent too much bending, adhering strictly to the unity of purpose—communication.

To teach the pupil to communicate effectively through the medium of oral expression is the primary aim of any speech course. That of Hattiesburg Senior High School is no exception. The speech course is elective for eleventh- and twelfth-grade pupils. Heretofore, only twelfth-grade pupils have been permitted to take the course, which is additional to the tenth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-grade English programs. These include units of study on various phases of oral expression. The extracurricular program provides additional speech and dramatics activities, including the annual class plays presented by each of the three classes.

Units in the speech course are based on a study of voice and diction, oral interpretation, public speaking, parliamentary procedure, group discussions, debate, special types of speeches (both extemporaneous and prepared—announcements, introductions, greetings, orations, nominations, acceptance of nominations, campaign and after-dinner speeches), dramatics, choral reading, and radio speaking. The program is flexible in that it is organized and adapted to meet the needs of the individuals in the class and of the school and the community. Thus the course of study, although adhering to the same pattern, changes from week to week, from month to month, and from year to year. Specific plans cannot be made until the needs and abilities of the individuals are fairly well ascertained. Even these plans do not always materialize; adjustments have to be made constantly.

The speech teacher believes that it is wise to have not only a long-range picture, but also a "day to day" philosophy. All cannot be accomplished in a short period of time; the parts must contribute to the whole procedure, which often may be long and tedious, and to the outcome, which always may not be satisfactory.

At the first meetings in September, the class learns how a group is organized. Temporary officers are named, and a constitution is written. After the adoption of the constitution, class members elect a chairman, a vice chairman, and a secretary to serve one term. Each succeeding term, new officers are elected. In order to give experiences in leadership to as many as possible in the class, no pupil may serve in the same office twice. This process of organization is ideal for the beginning of the study of parliamentary procedure. Pupils like to use the gavel and to participate in governing themselves. They realize that parliamentary procedure is a tool of democracy and that it is a way by which citizens can work together in a group.

With the pupil organization as a core, the speech activities literally "pop up" and burst forth. There are so many activities in which the class members want to engage that a calendar has to be made. This calendar largely determines the

time schedule for the course of study which must be adjusted to the calendar. However, this adjustment must not exclude any primary phase of a basic speech program.

One session the class listed, as a first major activity, participation in the Mississippi Youth Congress which is sponsored by the Mississippi Speech Association. This program necessitated a study of parliamentary procedure in relation to legislative bodies, the preparation and delivery of nomination and campaign speeches, the making of committee reports, the authorship and presentation of bills, debate, and group discussion.

The first major activity for several sessions has been the speakers bureau project for the United Welfare Organization, with members of the class giving talks about the community drive before local civic clubs. The project helped in publicizing the work of the welfare organizations as well as in developing the public speaking ability of the pupils.

Preparation for a specific activity vitalized the study of the textbook.¹ Other speech activities were naturally and logically eased into the program. To write the bills, pupils found that it was necessary to have interviews and conferences; to engage in debate, they realized their need for ample study of the problem and of methods of presenting the problem; and to choose a candidate for "Speaker of the House," they considered the qualifications of a speaker and learned that a good candidate must earn a right to lead, that he must have a good platform, that—as an individual—he must be worth listening to, and that he must be a good speaker.

An interesting project during the Christmas season was the writing of a radio play for presentation over a local radio station. Before the program was presented, several tape recordings were made.

Tape recordings of individual voices are made each session for "before" and "after" oral pictures, as well as from time to time during each term. Recordings are also made of speeches, dramatic presentations, and other radio programs. These programs often stimulate interesting class discussions. Criticisms, with special emphasis, if possible, on the constructive phase, are made.

Another excellent device in the audio-visual program is the moving picture. Two recent commercial films that delighted speech pupils were *Hamlet* and *Cyrano de Bergerac*. Films are shown in the classroom also. The high school is a member of the Mississippi Southern College film library, located in Hattiesburg, which has many good pictures for the study of speech.

Records which relate to the various phases of speech are played for pleasure and study. One record which pupils have enjoyed while studying oral interpretation is Lynn Fontaine's recording of "The White Cliffs" by Alice Duer Miller.

¹ Hedde, W. G., and Brigrance, W. *American Speech*, Revised. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1946.

Many activities of the speech class are closely related to those of the school and community. Several times during the session the class is responsible for assembly programs. Occasionally the class presents the "Voice of the Public Schools" radio program, which is broadcast each week during the school session by the Hattiesburg schools in co-operation with a local radio station.

In the community, the Junior Chamber of Commerce sponsors the "Voice of Democracy Contest," the Hattiesburg Rotary Club, the "Free Private Enterprise Essay-Public Speaking Contest," and the American Legion—an oratorical contest based on a study of the United States Constitution. Participation in these activities is encouraged, since they offer the pupils opportunities to gain valuable speaking and learning experiences. This participation is not required, but assistance of an advisory nature is offered those pupils who volunteer and desire help by the speech department in co-operation with other departments in the school.

The climactic dramatic activity each session is the class play. The sophomores usually present a light teenage comedy; the juniors, a comedy of American literature; and the seniors, a more dramatic type play. Last session, the seniors presented the American play *Our Town* by Thornton Wilder. Among other plays presented in recent years by the seniors and juniors are *The Barretts of Wimpole Street*, *Pride and Prejudice*, *Junior Miss*, *Little Women*, and *Seven Sisters*.

The choral reading unit is studied during the last term when the seniors are preparing their script for the commencement program. Usually the authors—the members of the senior English classes—choose to include some passage, original or selected, for choral reading. (One of these commencement scripts was published in the 1946 *Commencement Manual* of the National Education Association.)

An evaluation of a speech program of this type reveals that a flexible program may have its limitations, but these do not include monotony. There is no time for boredom or inactivity; the calendar for the speech class will not permit it!

A High School Answers a Challenge

BENITA BECK and
JOHN M. TROUT

"WHAT do I expect from my six weeks in oral English?"

I will gain the ability to talk more freely to my classmates and to teachers and other adults. I'll learn how to talk more distinctly and clearly. I'll learn how to make speeches, write essays, make introductions, and do many other things. I'll learn how to talk to my boss when I go to my first and then to many other jobs. I'll learn not to be shy . . . I'll get advice on how I speak, and what kind of voice I have, and I'll learn

a better vocabulary and better English. I'm sure I'll enjoy oral English, as I will learn many things that will later be very valuable to me in getting a job.

Sally, a tenth-grade pupil, wrote this statement at the beginning of the oral English unit at Dwight Morrow High School in Englewood, New Jersey. This is what she says she needs. Sally offers a challenge. What is Dwight Morrow High School doing to meet this challenge?

Let's go back to 1947. A far-seeing superintendent of schools and an alert principal, convinced of the lasting value of practical speech training, brought into the high school a specialist in speech who stated the object of speech training to be primarily to help each pupil gain confidence in his own worth and respect for his own ideas, so that he can put himself forward effectively as a person. Her realistic view won the superintendent's and the principal's complete support.

Working from this practical premise, the three charted a novel organization of oral English. In grades ten and eleven, each class was to be removed from regular English instruction for an interval of approximately six weeks, to receive speech training. The regular teacher thus released was to receive a free period. The English teachers, unanimously in favor of extended speech training, thus agreed to accept an increased pupil load in order to secure this added instructional advantage. Through complete co-operation of administrators and teachers, Englewood had enhanced its high-school curriculum.

For several reasons, Englewood's educators defend their oral English plan. It is easy to administer. It allows the development of speaking readiness. It concentrates emphasis on oral activity, so that the specialist in charge may develop a planned sequence of projects from this stage of readiness. It offers wide opportunities for the speech teacher to vary incentives and to modify content material as group needs vary. Finally, it is universal. Every pupil can "learn to talk more distinctly . . . learn how to talk to his boss when he goes for his first job. Learn not to be shy." Under this plan the school can do a substantial job with every pupil in presenting himself as a person.

Over the four-year intervening period, however, difficulties arose in the operation of this plan. Oral English separated itself from regular English. The regular teacher did not know what her class was doing in speech unit. There arose alleged differences in standards. Difficulties of administration made it impossible to maintain the guaranteed free-released period for English teachers; overload thus became a serious imposition. The English teachers did not have a definite conception of what was in it or how it was being executed. Some suggested that the program disintegrated language learning, by putting oral work in a water-tight compartment. The English teachers began to question the validity of the speech program.

This confusion arose in part because Englewood had no high-school department heads. A co-ordinator of language arts, introduced into the system in 1950, had among other assignments the specific responsibility of setting the oral English on a firm basis.

The co-ordinator, the administrators, and the teachers agreed that the speech work must not be cut back. They proposed six definite steps to secure oral English: (1) planned six-week units in speech under a specialist in the field should be retained and integrated with a totally reorganized course of study; (2) the outline of oral English should be revised, studied by the department as a whole, and made available to all; (3) texts should be provided for oral English; (4) an elective speech course should be developed for those who desired intensive work in the field; (5) the school should develop more co-curricular outlets for speaking; and (6) the school should restore the freedom of teachers when their classes were released to oral English.

During the past year, Englewood has made marked progress with all six steps. The texts are in use. The elective course has been experimentally conducted for one year, and is now in final form as a section of senior English. College candidates may take it in addition to traditional English. Non-college candidates may substitute it for regular English. As the statements at the end of this article reveal, the course is markedly successful.

The school has seen the organization of a speakers' club with an active program. Administrators are surveying the problem of teacher load. For they, too, oppose a cutback in the curriculum. Differentiation in the English curriculum is essential to meet the varying needs of youth. And the speech-centered unit is vital in an appropriately differentiated English program.

Most important, however, is the fact that the teachers have completed tentatively a revision of the tenth-grade course of study. In this revision, the teacher of oral English volunteered to advance the established directed reading programs, to submit a revised outline of content for the speech units, and to assume charge of the six-week unit on biography.

Biography is a most effective stimulant to expression. It is fertile in leads for discussion and in meaningful vicarious experience. It fosters gathering of ideas and generates situations in which expressing ideas is vital to the pupil. Thus the oral English, which might have been thought to concern itself with poetry or dramatics, avoids the expected. Taking content material vital to the pupil, it maintains accord with our speech specialist's major premise: the development of the individual pupil to recognize his own capacity and worth through speaking.

The tenth-grade unit in speech has these six objectives:

1. To help the pupil develop an awareness of effective speaking, a readiness to speak, and a recognition of the need for effective speaking in life situations.

2. To help the pupil acquire acceptable enunciation and articulation of speech sounds.
3. To help the pupil acquire habits of correctness and appropriateness in diction and usage.
4. To help the pupil gain confidence in expressing his views as a group member.
5. To help the pupil learn to gather, select, evaluate, and organize ideas.
6. To help the pupil become an intelligent listener.

These, in the language of the teacher, parallel the needs Sally put forward.

Oral English is established as a unit of the course of study. It advances total growth in language skills, assuring continuity in reading and writing while emphasizing speaking and listening. The unit proceeds in four steps: (1) establishing the incentive to speak, (2) gathering ideas—organizing, (3) expressing ideas—speaking, and (4) consuming ideas—listening.

In the first, or incentive stage of the unit, the pupil usually becomes ready to speak. Discussion provides experience. Through informal speaking, he develops the need for speaking, for poise, for self-confidence, for adequate preparation, for conviction and sincerity, for speaking effectiveness as an aid to making himself an all-round person. In the idea-gathering stage of the unit, the pupil learns that communicating ideas demands ideas to communicate. He reviews the sources of ideas. He touches firmly on library techniques. He learns to make a simple speech outline. To gather ideas effectively, he finds he must know what his purpose is. He must know why he is doing what he is doing.

In the "expression" step of the unit, the pupil must discover what the word *effective* means. At his level, he assimilates such concepts as timing, modulation, vocal variety, projecting the voice, appropriateness of diction and usage, force, and selection. He learns the audience-view of speaking, because a competent speaker must keep that factor prominently in mind.

Listening, the vital area of speech-consumption, is emphasized continuously. At no time does the teacher or the group ignore listening effectiveness. Intelligent listening is not the only factor vital to efficient communication. Group listening develops co-operativeness, respect for classmates, and manners without forcing the teacher to preach about these matters.

The process of this speech unit follows the mental process of communication: first the motive, then the organization of thought, then the expression, and, finally, the consumption. This unit is proving most effective.

In conclusion, Dwight Morrow High School is building a strong speech program on the foundation of complete co-operation of pupils, teaching personnel, and administrators. The program is focused on the live need of the pupil, and parallels the live action of communicating. In making a paper program take on effective vitality, the faculty have met problems and are advancing to solve these.

The ultimate objective of the Englewood workers is a program developed like a pyramid. The base is the universal speech training of the oral English units.

The median area is the elective speech work. The summit is the co-curricular program in dramatics, debate, oratory, service-speaking, and effective community leadership. For all these, the plans are drawn. The skeleton of the structure is erected, the foundation firmly established.

How strongly have we answered Sally's challenge "to learn to talk more freely to adults, make speeches . . . to learn not to be shy"? A few statements from pupils in this year's senior speech class will serve as testimony.

The discussion unit has given me an advantage over the other pupils who are going to college. I think the entire course should be a must for all college prep pupils.

I would recommend this type of course for all schools, for its greatest value is in teaching a person how to talk to others in a civilized and cultured manner.

I have learned to argue sensibly. I got more out of the argument part of the course than I did out of my English in three years of high school.

It is the most, if not the only, practical course in this high school, as it teaches you something you can apply and benefit from in everyday life, now and indefinitely.

The biggest thing the course has taught me is self-confidence. It does not bother me any more when I get up to give a speech in class or to say something in class. Another thing I learned in this course is to be able to know what another person has said after he said it The course has also given me ways to improve my voice, such as tone, force, projection I think it should be introduced in other schools.

Both the senior speech class and the oral English units have given me self-assurance in front of an audience . . . I believe the knowledge I have picked up will profit me throughout my life; and, unlike many school subjects, it will be used every day.

We Correlate Our Speech Courses

ROWENA H. ROBERTS

IN COLORADO SPRINGS High School, Colorado, we correlate our speech courses so that every one of our fifteen hundred pupils may receive training in speech once each week for four semesters. The program is based on the concept that, whenever it becomes necessary in public education to choose between extensive opportunity for the few and limited opportunity for the many, then, by the very definition of the word, "public," we must select the latter course. We make no claim that such a plan provides all the training needed by every child, but only that it benefits more people than can any other plan familiar to us involving the same staff.

This, in brief, is the program. All pupils are required to take English during grades ten and eleven and American history during grade twelve. Each second-semester sophomore English and first-semester junior English class reports to the speech room once a week. Each American history class reports once a week during the entire year. In addition, the retailing class has speech throughout

the senior year. Regular teachers accompany their classes and assist in planning the assignments. Effort is made to give speech assignments which will assist in covering the subject content of the course with which it is correlated. Special interests are cared for by two classes in stagecraft and two in dramatics—full-time courses—and extracurricular debate work.

The speech staff consists of three persons: the dramatics teacher who teaches the four dramatics classes, produces the plays, manages the auditorium, and assists the audio-visual aids supervisor; and the speech teacher and a half-time assistant who have thirty-four once-a-week classes and supervise debate work after school. The latter meet about nine hundred and fifty different pupils each week.

Objections can be raised to any plan. Let us consider those most commonly heard for this one. It is expensive, since the time of two teachers is involved each period. It gives too much free time to the regular teachers! It forces speech courses upon pupils who would never elect the subject. Since the time elapsing between classes is so long, pupils tend to forget what they have learned. It is almost impossible to use a textbook. No teacher can know such a large number of pupils well enough to give the kind of personalized teaching so essential to a successful speech course.

Strong support can be brought for each of these objections. It does involve the time of two teachers. The so-called free time it gives the regular teachers is, however, most welcome among the usually over-burdened group who teach required subjects and whose classes, therefore, are always full. Surely, if these too-busy folk contrive to grade part of a set of papers as they sit in the rear of the speech room listening with one ear to the efforts of their pupils, they should not be begrudged the privilege.

The next objection is no objection at all, for the majority of the pupils who need speech training would never elect the subject. One's perusal of the hundreds of testimonials of graduating seniors, who began the course in fear and trembling and who made the greatest effort to escape, would convince the most skeptical that speech courses should be required courses.

The length of time between class sessions is long and, of course, some forgetting occurs. However, regular teachers remind pupils through daily reference and by requiring speech-room standards in everyday oral work. Also, there are three years of continued emphasis and review—a longer span of emphasis than any one-semester course could give.

Textbooks are a possibility. In fact, for the last two years we have used the speech section in the English text and find it does save some time. Whenever there is need, we issue mimeographed or printed sheets of instructions which the pupil files in his notebook. Further information is given in brief lectures at the beginning of periods.

The last objection is the most valid, for certainly the attempt to learn the individual needs of seven hundred and fifty pupils places a very real burden upon the instructor. We have found a number of useful aids—and, after all, all nine hundred and fifty are not new faces. It is quite probable one will meet the same pupil four different semesters—approximately sixty-four times. By the time he is a senior, he is surprisingly easy to remember and—at least partially—understand.

Chief among the aids to remembering are the individual record sheets kept each semester. These are printed sheets, the heading of which gives the teacher the following information supplied by the pupil: name of pupil; name of parent or parents or guardian; street address; (Isn't it surprising how revealing those last two bits of information can be over a three-year period? A parent dies; there is a divorce; a widowed mother remarries; the family moves to a better, or poorer, part of town—all items which may reveal why Johnny has seemed worried, or elated, lately); name of regular teacher; day and hour of class meeting; and sponsor's name. If it becomes necessary to send a deficiency slip to the parent and sponsor, all the information is available and no trip to the office is necessary. To these data, the teacher adds, at the top of the sheet, the intelligence quotient. The speech teacher also records, at the top of the sheet, any scores of personality or achievement tests which he may have administered himself or obtained from the records of the guidance department.

Below the heading, the page is divided into small rectangles under various titles. Here the teacher may keep a record of the work done in eight assignments. If the pupil appears more than that many times, the teacher may use the other side of the sheet or a new blank. Each teacher would want his own comment divisions. Some of ours are: title, action, voice, English, pronunciation, unity, crutches, objectivity, and grade.

The pupil has one record sheet for each semester. At the end of a semester, both teachers' sheets are alphabetized. When the pupil reappears, his new record sheet is stapled on top of his previous sheets, thus enabling the teacher to have that pupil's complete speech history before him at all times, whether the pupil attended his or another teacher's class during preceding semesters. With these sheets to supplement the regular class book, where grades and attendance are recorded, it is possible to tell at a glance the status of the class as a whole on a given assignment and the status of the individual.

Other aids in getting acquainted with the pupil are the advice and assistance of the regular teachers and the members of the guidance department. This aid is invaluable. Often during the first semester, before the pupil has enrolled for any speech work, some teacher whose work is not correlated formally with the speech work will write a note to us, calling our attention to some particular difficulty or aptitude of an individual pupil. If it is a difficulty, we try to be-

come acquainted with the pupil at once. If it is an aptitude, we again call the pupil in and urge him to participate in dramatics or debate. Seating charts, too, are a help in associating names and faces.

The most complete help in the business of getting acquainted comes from members of the guidance department. Almost any speech teacher who has dealt with thousands of pupils becomes adept at spotting the problem cases. About the time of the first assignment, real difficulties become manifest. If a brief private consultation with the pupil reveals the trouble to be basic, the speech teacher knows he has not time to make the necessary investigation. The pupil is referred at once to experts who report their findings and recommend the approach to be used with that individual.

It is not the purpose of this article to detail the assignments which we use, for there is nothing startlingly different from the speech courses outlined in many textbooks. Briefly, the usual beginning is a frank explanation of the purposes of the course, with some discussion as to the causes of fear and an introduction to personality development. We have found that the more frank we are with reasons for assignments, the better results we get. When we ask a pupil to entertain us by telling his most embarrassing moment, we explain that learning to laugh at oneself is a part of growing up and that the "ventilation" of his embarrassment will serve as an expurgation. Usually, *first* assignments are in the social field; *second*, in the business field; *third*, pantomimes; *fourth*, methods of entertaining an audience, *etc.*

The junior course is mostly public speaking. The senior course includes many panel discussions and symposiums, followed by senior speech—a complete speech project required of each senior on a subject in the field of social science approved by the social science teacher. This project involves complete research, taking notes on cards, use of two reference libraries, noun topic and sentence outlines, bibliographies, and a fifteen-minute talk. It is the most discussed assignment in school and permits correlation with many subjects. The talks are sent out into the community and used in many other classes where the subjects are relevant. Printed instructions are provided. Achievements with this assignment are remarkable. Even the most shy and inhibited have a good time when the dreaded moment finally arrives.

It is interesting to note that during the first semester of the senior year the actual assignments are made by the social science teachers. The speech teacher seldom knows what the class will be doing when it arrives. In this way, the subject matter of the course does not suffer from the loss of a period a week. The speech teacher makes suggestions like the following: "John is very low in dominance. Will you please make him chairman of a panel?" "Could we have an assignment of short talks soon?" "Mary talks too much. Let's place her on the next symposium and credit her with her improvement in listening." "Tom

needs a lot of practice. May he have an assignment every week this month?" Many of the assignments are on topics of current interest covered in the weekly newspapers provided for all history pupils. The discussions are often lively affairs. The history teacher grades each pupil on his knowledge of the subject and sees to it that the subject is covered. The speech teacher grades the pupil on his improvement in speech skills and personality development.

It may be pertinent to call attention to some of the adjustments a teacher may need to make in changing from elective five-day-a-week classes to the correlated plan.

Don't be a perfectionist. It helps to remember that while all the children of all the people need to have their lives enriched and their opportunities for success enhanced by losing their fear of social business and public speech situations, the few who will become lawyers, ministers, and professional speakers will have a lot more training in colleges and universities before they reach that stage. Don't be afraid to minimize the public speaking angle in favor of social and business assignments. They'll all be asking for jobs and introducing strangers even if they never address the Rotary Club.

Don't worry too much if the order in which you give assignments isn't the logical one outlined in the texts. It is important to have the pupil give a demonstration talk at the time he is studying exposition in his regular English class, for you will have the assistance of his regular teacher's instructions. And she will have the advantage of an extra assignment in explanation which she will not have to sit up until midnight to grade. And, if he slips on some of the principles she has tried to instill in him, she is right in the room to let him know it, either by her shocked expression or by her comments volunteered during the class comment period. And, most important of all, the pupil, hearing the instructions and comments from two teachers and the class, is considerably more likely to be impressed.

You will be working closely with ten or twelve different teachers. It is much more important to have their enthusiastic support than to have all your classes working on a given assignment at the same time. In fact, the support and co-operation of these co-workers is the most essential part of the problem, for, if you have it, you have not two speech teachers, but fourteen or fifteen. And you will have all the pupils in your school thinking about speech—not one day a week or one semester, but in many classes during every semester.

Don't be hesitant about expanding that correlation. When the secretarial classes have an assignment in application, telephone procedure, making and breaking appointments, let them come to the speech room, even though it does mean an extra class for you that day. And do go to the retailing class every week. There are many interesting contributions you can make in that field.

You will need as much skill in the art of human relationships as in the art of speech, for you have less time in which to win the confidence of your pupils and more different personalities to be met. You may sometimes feel that you have too many bosses and that too many changes of plan are required of you. But in the long run, your rewards will be greater than those to be obtained by the teaching of any selected group, no matter how brilliant that group may be. The satisfaction that you will have from seeing a vast majority of your school's graduates articulate and free from important fears which plagued their parents will compensate you for the admittedly hard work you have done.

We know the faults in our plan. Our greatest hope is to lengthen the term of instruction by extending the course into the first semester of the sophomore year and the second semester of the junior year by correlating it with the course in literature taught in those two semesters. This would enable us to include work in choral speaking, reading aloud, dramatizations, *etc.* for which we have no time at present. It would require the full-time services of an additional teacher. We have requested the change and are somewhat encouraged to think it may be made. If it is, we feel we could guarantee that every pupil would be graduated free from fear of a speech situation.

Since we began by listing the objections, let us conclude by listing a few of the advantages of our correlation. The *first* and most important result of the three-year plan is the opportunity it gives for dealing with the pupil at different stages of development. Varying periods of maturity provide varying challenges. special classes need be organized, no conflicts result in the schedule; whereas,

A *second* advantage is the administrative convenience in programming. No any five-day-a-week class, required or elective, creates some problems of this sort. The speech teacher schedules the classes after consultation with the heads of departments.

Third, the carry-over of the speech course into other classes is very much greater than it could be with any uncorrelated plan. The presence of the teachers of other subjects in the speech room makes them more speech conscious than they would otherwise be.

Fourth, the course can be adapted to different ability groupings because the classes are already so divided.

Fifth, the school board is more favorable to the purchase of audio-visual aids (wire recorders, moving picture film, maps, mirrors, *etc.*) for a course involving large numbers of pupils.

Sixth, the fact that speech training is required and traditional make it seem less terrifying to many regressive pupils. Other teachers report that their classes look forward to "speech day" as a change from routine. When it became necessary because of teacher shortages to withdraw the course from the slow history classes, the pupils insisted upon its restoration.

Seventh, although no teacher has enough time to finish all the things he would like to include, teachers welcome the change in their own routine and the lightening of their burden. They are interested and most co-operative in helping with the personality problems of the pupils.

There are many other advantages one might list. The most interesting way to discover them would be to try the plan in your school.

Speech Education in the Vocational High School

EVELYN MULLER

AN ORGANIZED speech program has been in effect in the vocational high schools of New York City for the past seven years. In September, 1945, twelve regularly certificated speech teachers were appointed to the schools of the vocational division. Six regular speech teachers were already serving in vocational schools as they had been transferred in excess from the academic high schools previous to 1945. This small corps of eighteen has almost tripled in size, and this year there are fifty teachers of speech assigned to the thirty-one vocational high schools of the city. Nor has this prodigious expansion reached its peak, as the ultimate ratio of one speech teacher to every six hundred pupils is the goal of the division. There are approximately 42,000 vocational high school pupils on register.

The vocational high-school teacher of speech offers three types of speech service. Of his twenty-five teaching periods a week, ten are given to clinical instruction, ten to the speech-centered term of English, and five to a speech arts class. In addition to these teaching periods, the speech teacher devotes ten periods a week to speech counseling (diagnostic testing and clinical follow-up), record keeping, interviewing parents, making and checking up on dental and medical referrals, and coaching or rehearsing assembly programs. (Usually, the speech teacher is the school's assembly co-ordinator.)

In forming clinic classes, three basic rules are followed: (1) the clinics are kept homogeneous according to speech defect; (2) the maximum register is set at fifteen; (3) the speech defect must be marked enough to constitute a social or vocational handicap. While individual instruction is sometimes necessary, as, for example, when there is only one cleft palate case in the school, group therapy is preferred both for its efficiency and for its economy.

Several effective variations in programming pupils for speech clinics have been worked out in the schools according to each school's organization. The vocational high-school pupil does not have a study period even though his day is one period longer than that of the academic high-school pupil. In addition to his four periods of shop mandated by the Smith-Hughes Law, he has four periods of academic subjects (English, social studies, art, music, and health education) and related technical subjects (mathematics and science). Then too, there is another factor that makes clinical programming difficult. In many instances, the shops are housed in one building and the academic classrooms in another.

In some schools, a speech clinic, especially for stutterers or for pupils with foreign accent, meets five times a week and is credited as a term of English. In others, a different type of speech clinic is set up for each day of the week, and the pupils who attend are excused from their regular classes in all subject areas to do so. It may readily be deduced, therefore, that the entire school must be in sympathy with the need for and the value of the clinical speech service.

The speech-centered term offers no such programming problems. It is merely a term of regular English in which the techniques of oral communication are stressed. Most frequently the speech-centered term is scheduled in the eleventh or twelfth year. There are two reasons for this. *First*, the more mature the pupils are, the more immediate application they have for desirable speech habits. And from the viewpoint of expediency, there are fewer pupils in the upper terms, making it possible for the speech teacher to cover the entire group. (Speech-centered classes have a maximum register of twenty-five.)

The teaching materials used in the speech-centered term were developed as a result of a survey made in 1946. At that time, employers in industry were questioned to determine what speech habits were most desirable in employees, and those in which employees were found most deficient. Interestingly enough, the survey revealed that more people lose jobs because of personality difficulties than because of inefficiency. Using the premise, therefore, that personality traits are invariably exposed in basic speech attitudes, efforts in the speech field concentrated on developing in pupils the ability to get along with others. While a good deal of time is spent in training in the skills of communication (voice control, clarity of speech, listening, conversing, and the organization and presentation of ideas), even more emphasis is placed upon establishing proper attitudes of courtesy, thoughtfulness, and friendliness.

The speech arts class lends itself to many interpretations, depending upon the skill of the teacher and the school facilities at his disposal. Usually, this class is an elective, and its activities may range from platform training to those of a dramatic or radio workshop. In addition to providing educational fun while fostering cultural growth, these classes offer an excellent correlation with voca-

tional skills. Boys training in the building and electrical shops apply their skills in stagecraft, while the girls in the garment trades and beauty culture put their talents to use in costuming and make-up.

There are a number of reasons why speech work has flourished in the vocational high schools. First of all, the great need that future workers in industry have for good speech training is so obvious that principals and supervisors welcomed an opportunity to introduce the speech program to their pupils. This receptiveness to the idea of special speech instruction in the vocational high schools was furthered by the intelligent manner in which speech positions were assigned to the schools. To work with maximum efficiency, speech classes must be small so that instruction may be individualized to some extent. In order to keep the speech class registers small without increasing the class sizes in other subjects, speech positions were allocated to the schools over and above the normal teacher allotments which are calculated on the basis of total registration. Along with such special budgetary provision for the speech services, the vocational division went a step further in providing material support to the speech program. Each school was equipped with a recording apparatus designated for use in speech improvement.

Then too, the health and guidance facilities in the vocational high schools are unusually fine. Each school has a full-time health counselor and a full-time guidance counselor to whom the speech teacher may turn for advice and referral. Very often a health problem contributes to a speech defect. Not only are complete and up-to-date health records available to the speech teacher to aid in diagnosis, but also the prompt attention given to pupils referred for health problems by the speech teacher is most helpful.

The guidance counselors, too, are ever ready and well qualified to confer with the speech teacher on odd behavior patterns or suitable vocational course choices for the seriously handicapped in speech. Too often a reluctant speaker has been led to elect the most mechanical vocational field simply because it offers him an excuse for remaining inarticulate. For example, the foreign-born frequently turn to power-machine operating until they have acquired the ability to express themselves as interested in and capable of learning a more skilled trade. On the other hand, it is often wise to guide an organically speech defect pupil into a vocational field where his handicap will be minimized.

Comparatively speaking, vocational high schools are small organizations, and only a few of them have more than a thousand pupils on register. Usually the teachers know each other and almost all of the pupils personally, and so a great deal of problem sharing and solving is done on an individual personal basis. This is a distinct advantage to the speech teacher whose success depends so largely on co-operation and good human relations.

Dramatics Program at Middletown High School

FLORENCE POWELL

OUR dramatics program at Middletown (Ohio) High School is based on curricular and extracurricular dramatization from the kindergarten through all the grades and junior high schools. In our schools dramatized storytelling is used in the kindergarten, and dramatized reading is added in the first grade. This creative acting is carried into the early teaching of history, and is seen in the play games and dancing of the elementary-school physical education. Short plays and pageants are presented to Parent-Teacher organizations, dramatized radio programs are presented during American Education Week, interpretive and choral readings show pupil assemblies what interested pupils (and teachers) can do to make ordinary classwork "different" and more interesting. In junior high schools, assembly classes, dramatic clubs, class plays, and operettas offer opportunities for many to develop their already awakened interest. Rarely do we have any entering our dramatic work at senior high school who have not previously received enjoyment through participation in the lower grades.

In senior high school our program is a combination of a course in dramatics, dramatized work in a number of English classes, units of dramatic or fundamentals of voice and action in a basic speech course, an English club in which considerable dramatization is done, two dramatics clubs, three class plays, a full evening play by our negro dramatic club, a one-act group or full evening play by our National Thespian Dramatic Club, local presentations and assembly presentations from these classes and clubs, an operetta from our music department, and state contests in drama and poetry. In our dramatics course is incorporated the management of a radio program weekly which includes many dramatic or dramatized programs. In many cases, the teachers and pupils in these groups do not even realize that they are, loosely, a part of the dramatic program. Administrators might smile at the idea, but, without a basis and an outlet, there is never a dramatic program worthy of the name.

The two dramatic clubs and the basic speech course work bear more explanation. There was a time when we had four dramatic clubs—sophomore, junior, and senior, plus one for the negro pupils. The latter I had fought bitterly as a sign of discrimination, urging our negroes to enter our class clubs. But they themselves persuaded me that: (1) since so few in each class were interested in dramatics, none of them would have opportunity to play anything but maid's or butler's parts; whereas, with an all-colored group from all classes, they could even put on a whole evening's play; (2) that they, and the other pupils would be freer to have social affairs in each other's homes. This has worked out very

nicely, with our dean of boys, a minister, as their director. A little later, it seemed desirable to bring in the National Thespian Society. Entrance to this was to be gained by work in the other four clubs, three of which were united into one club for white pupils. At present, this last club (the subordinate club for white pupils) has been discontinued for lack of a teacher to act as director: There is hope that this may be revived in the near future.

In the basic speech course—a full-year subject, elective, and struggling against the ever-increasing field of required and elective subjects—there is basic work in voice and pantomime, opportunity to do extracurricular work in interpretative reading of both humorous and dramatic types, and poetry reading, or to try out for National Thespian plays. In voice work, there are tape recordings made of the individual voices; kindly criticism is given; voice problems are privately discussed; and serious defects are talked over with our voice correctionist. Study is made of the "voice machine," how the voice is made, common defects and ways to correct them, and good qualities and the sort of characters who use these qualities. Various dramatic types are imitated, and class exercises often develop into dramatic character sketches. Study of emphasis and variety of pitch and time build a basis for future work in the dramatic classes. Pantomime is introduced as an aid to freedom of the body before an audience; it has proved to be one of the most attractive units of the course and to lead many to enter the dramatics class or to come out for tryouts of plays outside of class.

We are indeed lucky that we have a different and well-trained director for each of our full-evening plays. That means that sufficient time is available for good work and excellent training in each long play (We prefer six weeks from tryouts to performance, though some like an extra week for tryouts, others cut the time to five weeks and "drive" a little harder); and also that, with trained directors, the pupil who majors in the subject receives *good* training from three or four different directors.

Our dramatics course is a full-year course for which one full credit is received. Basic speech is a prerequisite for this course, though some pupils who have been in many plays and are upper classmen of high scholastic rank may skip the prerequisite if the teacher gives permission. The material in the course is a combination of class assignments and individual and group projects. This material may vary somewhat each year to fit the class or to modernize the subject. The aims, however, remain constant. They are: (1) to gain, through expression, individual confidence, social poise, and enjoyment in wholesome recreation; (2) to become informed about the modern media of interchange of thought, emotion and social persuasion, and the history thereof; (3) to learn social co-operation through working in group projects; and (4) to gain appreciation and enjoyment of beauty and truth through studying human nature and the great masterpieces of dramatic art.

UNITS OF WORK

The units of work which are being used at present are these:

1. Study of Radio and Television

A. Simplified lessons on how each medium works, its importance, and its opportunities for lifework.

B. Talks by personnel from the local radio station.

C. Visits to WPFB, our local radio station, with explanation of the mechanical and scientific end for those pupils who desire it; trip through WLW in Cincinnati to view some radio program presented; and a trip to some nearby television studio to observe a television program broadcast.

D. Regular radio program of fifteen minutes each week, run by and planned by a committee from the dramatics class and supervised by the teacher.

E. Opportunity for individual pupils to start other radio programs at the local station.

F. Learning to write a simple continuity program and writing many of those used by the radio committee on their weekly program, "Middletown Schooldays." (This year the committee, discovering that the radio teenage listeners were small in number at the hour available to us, decided that they would beam the program at the parents, advertising all departments of the school. Each program was scheduled by the committee, assigned to some classmate who had had work in that department; supervised until that classmate had made satisfactory arrangements with teachers in that department, had written a script and collected and rehearsed a cast; then transportation was provided, scripts were mimeographed, and participants were on hand when the teacher arrived at the studio one hour ahead of the broadcast for final rehearsal. Of course, dramatic scripts had to be rehearsed more than this; but, for the interview type and the talent shows and simple continuities, this was the usual routine). By the end of the year, the committee, after only a little supervision by the teacher, did many programs alone.

G. Tieups with our local station on radio announcing contests and training thereto. In the fall, we have a contest for any pupil who wishes to announce. Six are chosen as the regular announcers for "Middletown Schooldays." In the spring, WPFB holds an elimination contest for these six to decide which boy and girl go to the state announcers' contest at Ohio State University to represent the high school.

H. Possible entrance this year of a radio script in the state script contest; possible tieup with some television station to produce a brief program or take part in a teenage show.

I. Entering a script in a national contest through the *Scholastic Magazine*.

Possibly some of these seem outside the dramatic program and over in the public speaking field, but we find this a way out for the dramatic-class pupil who has little time or dramatic ability to express himself. It is surprising how often these scripts become dramatizations—more interesting, the pupils say.

2. Study of Bodily Expression

A. *Pantomime*. Starting with the basis achieved in the basic speech course as an aid to bodily freedom, we now stress pantomime as an exercise of imagination, imitation, and grace.

B. *Original skits*. Exercises in pantomime grow into spoken imitations of characters, then into brief skits with climaxes.

C. *Original one acts*. Sometimes, attempts are made by those interested in writing a one-act play as a project—not as a class assignment.

3. Study of Interpretation

A. Voice training

- a. Review what was done in basic speech: how the voice works, problems and aids to betterment of the voice, the "machine."
- b. Stress greatly the study of emphasis, pitch, pauses, rate and other time elements, qualities, and all other elements that enter into an excellent voice.
- c. Considerable use is made of the tape recorder for individual voices and for recording of radio programs, readings, and sections of plays.
- d. Talk by our supervisor of corrective speech. (Our schools have so expanded that she cannot do individual work in the high schools, but she does manage to advise us and to give a little help after hours. It is interesting to note that she is a former student of speech at our school.)

B. Reading—Study of a reading in which several different characters are imitated. The best of these are memorized, used for local programs, and entered in National Forensic contests. (We have a National Forensic League chapter and are quite active in the work. For some pupils this is a marvelous activity.)

C. Acting

- a. Study of the techniques of acting that have not been covered in the units under bodily expression and interpretation. Thorough discussion of these. Tests given in all sections of the work where memorization is necessary.
- b. Acting in simple one-act plays, directed by the teacher, but with an assistant director chosen from the pupils.
- c. Acting in cuttings from great plays, with a similar setup.
- d. Pupils are urged to try out for club and class plays, and are given project time and grades on projects for these activities, after consultation with the directors of these plays. Provided it does not interfere with school work and our own projects, student participation in church, club, and Little Theatre plays outside school is recommended, and some credit given on project work for these. (It is more difficult to estimate the standards on these.)

D. Study of Interpretation of poetry.

- a. Study of the techniques of poetry reading as different from prose reading: meter, rhythm, the avoidance of sing-song reading, the greater study of the background of a poem, the greater use of the imagination, the more exact technique of the voice, etc. (This varies with the group and the pupil's interest in the subject.)
- b. First round of our poetry reading contest. (This is held in all our speech classes.) From these, the pupils and teachers choose the top readers who are then judged in an after-school contest by speech and English teachers (preferably those with some voice or dramatic training). The top two winners in this round represent the school in the district poetry contest held in conjunction with the one-act play festival. Others, not winning, but reading well, are used on radio or in local programs, if possible.

4. History of the Theatre and Reading of Plays from All Periods

A. Lectures by the teacher, illustrated by pictures, drawings, dramatization, and stories on the Western Theatre (stages, plays, playwrights, general movements) from the beginnings to the modern day. Mimeographed outlines, with space for notes, have helped inexperienced notetakers to follow the lectures better.

B. Further readings and oral reports by some most interested in the various periods of the theatre.

C. Reading and discussion of plays from the Ancient Greek to the modern—

- a. The ancient Greek plays are usually told by the teacher in a simplified manner: The *Orestia* of Aeschylus, the *Oedipus* plays from Sophocles, Euripides' *Medea*, The *Trojan Women*, *Alcestis*, Aristophanes' *The Frogs*, Menander's *The Girl from Samos*. Notes on these are taken.
- b. In like manner, some of the plays of the Middle Ages are given in brief by the teacher, although *Everyman* is accessible, and *Gammer Gurton's Needle* is understandable by every high-school student.
- c. Page-long written reports for each play that is read on author, period, type, main characters, plot, theme, and simple criticism are handed in so that each may receive credit for all the reading that is done.
- d. Oral reports are given on as many plays per historical period as is deemed possible and wise. Discussion is held on each report, notes by ambitious classmates are recorded in the notebooks required for this unit. (It is striking how many of our dramatic pupils write back during their freshman year in college and say, "I am carrying a spear—or even leader of the chorus—in *Alcestis* or *Agamemnon*. I was one of the few who knew the play." Thus this study furnishes an entering wedge to college work.)
- e. Projects in this field other than those already mentioned
 - (a) Cuttings from plays used for class and public performances. (Our most hilarious this year was the "Pyramus and Thisbe" section from *Midsummer Night's Dream*.)
 - (b) Adaptations from whole plays for National Thespian International Theatre Week or even as an entry in the state contest. (Our most notable was an adaptation of *Antigone* with which we won first place in A schools in the state in 1950.)
 - (c) Theatre parties to Middletown Little Theatre, good movies, nearby colleges (especially where our alumni are starring), and the professional theatre in Cincinnati.
 - (d) Oral reports on and critical discussions of plays seen by individual pupils on the legitimate stage, on TV, and at the movies.
 - (e) Any worth-while project thought up by a pupil, such as a real study of the lives of legitimate theatre, movie, or TV personalities.
 - (f) Talk by some former or present actor or other person connected with the stage, movies, or TV—if possible, one of our former pupils. (When one of our former pupils was head of the chorus and understudy of all women leads in the *Oklahoma* company that came to Cincinnati every year, we used to meet her after the show—those were the breathless days! Even the director of our city's Little Theatre is well received, and often gathers actors from our group.)

5. Study of Production

A. Techniques of direction are studied as we make a director's manuscript, including

- a. Information about the cast and staff (addresses, telephone numbers, etc.) as we study how to cast a play and the duties of the members of the staff.
- b. How to mark the expression, the sound, the action, the grouping, which have already been studied in the units on interpretation and acting.
- c. Brief study of sound effects and of lighting as it can be done at our school; making of plots for these for the manuscripts. (We take a period on stage to learn to run the switchboard, etc.)

- d. Study of stage settings, technical terms, working with flats, etc., as we make floor plots and drawings of settings for our manuscripts.
 - e. Brief study of properties and costumes as we make plots of the same for our particular play manuscript.
 - f. Study of makeup which includes basic lessons in demonstration and pupil imitation of themselves or others in class. Then makeup plots for the manuscripts are made. Basic lessons include straight makeup, juvenile, middle age, old age, application of mustache, graying of hair, etc.
- B. Projects
- a. Student director of play in class or club, or assistant to teacher director of class play, stage manager for a play.
 - b. Reading and reports on books or magazine articles by authorities on acting or directing.
 - c. Working as sound effects man on some production.
 - d. Working as electrician on some production or as school assembly electrician for the year.
 - e. Cleanup job backstage, or carpenter, or "grips" on a big production.
 - f. Making a miniature set for a play, with lighting, props, etc.
 - g. Making miniature costumes for a play.
 - h. Making real costumes or acting as wardrobe mistress for a play.
 - i. Acting on prop crew or as chairman of a crew for a play.
 - j. Cleanup jobs and regular work at keeping the prop rooms in fair condition.
 - k. Cleanup job and regular work at keeping the costumes in good condition.
 - l. Further study of costumes, oral and/or written reports on the same.
 - m. Working on makeup crew on some play.
 - n. Any other project agreed to by the teacher, within the abilities of the pupil and the time available.

GENERAL SUMMARY

To some, this may seem an over-ambitious program. I assure them that we never accomplish all the program of our course in dramatics in any one year, and that we are never satisfied with the amount and quality done in some of the extracurricular fields of our program. We believe in being unsatisfied, always pointing the way to greater perfection. But, on the other hand, we have learned that, in order to have a good program and good results, those concerned must make ample use of tact and praise, of great doses of enthusiasm and inspiration, of activity and an opportunity to shine for the least talented in the class.

In looking over the program, we do feel we have provided the opportunity for all to gain: (1) personal confidence and social poise, (2) wholesome recreation, (3) information on the techniques of the field (enough to get a start), (4) co-operation with others, (5) greater appreciation of the arts, and (6) if all others have been accomplished, fun. However, the success of such a program depends on a friendly, understanding administration; close, tactful working with parents; and teachers who have an understanding of psychology, some training in the background, (training can be acquired), a cast iron constitution with vim and vigor bubbling over in enthusiasm, a patience without end,

and, above all, a belief in dramatics that nothing can dim and a real love of young people. No one is such a super-teacher, but many hitch their wagon to such a star. Carl Sandburg once said: "In the darkness with a great bundle of grief the people march. In the night, and overhead a shovel of stars for keeps, the people march: 'Where to? What next?'" Perhaps we, through dramatics, can help them forget the "great bundle of grief" and look upward to the stars.

The Forensics Program at Eastern High School

T. G. HARRIS

LANSING Eastern High School is a participating member of the Michigan High-School Forensic Association which sponsors a general program of forensic activities for all secondary schools in Michigan. During the first semester, the member schools participate in a well-organized debating program with each class A school having both an affirmative and negative team, which participates in a preliminary schedule of four judged league debates. Our school belongs also to the Five-A-Forensic League, which conducts a separate schedule of debates. This is a local league and is also sponsored by the Michigan High-School Forensic Association. Since our school participates in the general schedule of the Michigan High-School Forensic Association and in the Five-A-League, our pupils are given an opportunity to debate in eight judged contests. In 1949 twenty-five debaters participated in regularly scheduled debates with many of the debaters receiving keys in recognition of their efforts.

Debating is conducted at Eastern High School both as a regular class subject and as an extracurricular activity. Pupils who elect debate as a regular subject receive a semester's credit for this course in which they study and discuss not only the state debate subject, but also investigate and debate other subjects, such as "Lowering the Voting Age to Eighteen," "Unicameral Legislature," and "Socialized Medicine."

Our regular class work is organized with definite objectives in mind. In the first place, we have a debate class which meets the seventh period each day for fifty-five minutes. In this class we study some of the more important principles of argumentation using textbooks, such as Willhoft's *Modern Debate Practice*, O'Neill and Cortright's *Debate and Oral Discussion*, and Summer's *Contest Debating*. The class as a group studies definite chapters in these texts, and class members make reports on assigned subjects from the debate textbooks.

The members of this class are potential debaters, and everyone is encouraged to take advantage of any opportunity to speak. The debate question for this year in Michigan comes very close to the interests of pupils. It reads, *Resolved: That all American citizens should be subject to conscription for essential service in time of war.* A study of this question involves a study of government, of economics, and of social organization, thus giving the pupils an opportunity to acquire knowledge in correlated fields. We combine our study of the principles of debating with the study of the state debate question; for example, when we make a study of debate brief, we prepare a brief of the conscription question.

After a study has been made of the important principles of debating and of the state debate question, we then have debates between members of the class with every pupil participating in a debate. Pupils debate more effectively if they have an audience, and so we schedule practice debates before classes, community clubs, and various other groups. Debate questions, such as "Lowering the Voting Age" and the "Direct Election of the President" are appropriate subjects for social study classes, and so we make arrangements with the social science teachers for debaters to present panel discussions and debates before their classes. The pupils not only learn a great deal from the discussions and debates, but also are sometimes encouraged to develop closer interests in debate.

Occasionally, we have our affirmative and negative teams debate before a community group and then ask the audience to vote for the team which did the better debating. We have learned that audiences like the Oregon type of debate which permits debaters to give speeches and question one another on the content. Provisions are made for the audience to ask our participants questions. This question-and-answer period is usually very interesting and stimulating. It provides excellent training and requires the debater to develop habits of thinking on his feet. This is very necessary for the good debater. We also arrange for practice debates with other schools, thus giving our pupils an opportunity to become acquainted with many young people who have similar interests. We consider practice debates very important in developing good debating teams.

Many times our debaters present radio discussions and debates. These usually are thirty minutes in length, and each team is required to have two five-minute constructive speeches and one four-minute rebuttal speech. During the past year, pupils from Eastern have discussed not only the state debate question, but also the other subjects mentioned above and "Capital Punishment." Many of these debates have been recorded on our tape recorder. Later, these were played back in our debate class so that all of the pupils could hear the radio discussions and offer comments and suggestions. This procedure works successfully, for it allows pupils to study their vocal delivery as well as to analyze their material and debate procedures. These radio debates have done much to encourage de-

baters to be more interested in developing effective speaking voices. Our local radio station, WJLM, received many cards and letters from people who spoke very highly of the broadcasts. This public response naturally helps to stimulate pupil interest. For our broadcasts, we use debaters who did not participate in judged debates so that more individuals are given an opportunity to debate. Our aim at Lansing Eastern High School is not to develop just a *few* debaters but to give the *many* pupils an opportunity to participate in speaking situations.

Some pupils, because of conflicts, cannot take debating during the regular school period. We make provisions for these pupils by scheduling their meetings after school. This is difficult for the teacher, but it develops interest and helps to promote the objectives of any speech program. In this extra meeting, our procedure is similar to that used in class in debate, except that the training is not so intensive. Those pupils who are especially interested will come in for extra help; some even come during the noon period. In order to give them experience and allow them to carry out a definite purpose, practice debates are arranged for these pupils. They also participate in radio discussions and debates presented before school classes and community groups. In this way, debate becomes a general school project available to all interested pupils.

During the second semester, the Michigan High-School Forensic Association sponsors what is known as a series of spring speech activities. These include



In many schools, debate becomes a general school project available to all interested pupils. Considerable time is spent in the library getting material, studying magazines, investigating background, and improving understanding of many variations of the speech projects.

oratorical declamation, oratory, dramatic reading, humorous reading, and extempore speaking. During this term, the debate class expands its program, and each pupil is encouraged to choose one of the areas mentioned above as his major interest. He is then given an opportunity to work within a special group with similar interests—the orators in one group, the extempore speakers in another. The pupils in these groups are not only guided by the instructor, but they are also permitted to help one another. Considerable time is spent in the library getting materials and studying magazines such as *Newsweek* and *Time*, investigating background, and improving the understanding of many variations of the speech projects. Some of the pupils meet after school to continue their practice. I also work after school with pupils who cannot take the regular course during the seventh period. In this way, the forensic activities become a general school project available to all interested pupils.

Opportunities for pupils aiming to participate in these spring contests are so arranged that most of them have a chance to speak before audiences. Since the extempore speaking subjects are current topics and since our orators usually write about contemporary problems, their speeches are suitable for social science classes. Our dramatic readers present their readings to a class in drama or in English literature. Our contestants have appeared before different junior high-school groups to present their speeches and readings to social science and English classes. They have also appeared in some of the smaller high schools near Lansing as participants on assembly programs. These presentations are always desirable and give excellent practice before audiences as well as being good experience as a preliminary for the judged forensic contests.

Speech practice and opportunities for stressing the value of good speaking are not left entirely to the speech class or to the speech teacher. Our sophomore B classes in English require the pupils to give ten speeches. Since English is required, every sophomore at Eastern High School receives some training in speech. The names of the pupils who appear to be good prospects for speech development are suggested by the English teacher who encourage these pupils to take a course in speech and to participate in the forensic activities.

Toward the close of each school year, a dinner is arranged for those who have participated in the speech activities. Awards are presented at this time; the year's activities are reviewed; and there is arranged a general program with an outside speaker.

Education is a training for life. Any activity which develops the ability to speak and read effectively is a worth-while activity in our democracy. Good communication is our aim. We at Lansing Eastern High School are proud to find that our speech program over the years has aided many pupils to take their rightful places in a community and become more effective citizens.

CHAPTER XIII

A SPEECH PROGRAM REQUIRES
GOOD TEACHING

Techniques and Devices in Teaching Speech

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IN ALL teaching situations the pupil should hold the place of prime importance. But, to complete the teaching situation, we need a second person—the teacher. This is true, of course, for any field. In the areas of speech and drama, the teacher is of great importance, and he should be selected wisely. A speech and drama teacher must meet all characteristics of any good teacher, but, in order to put into effect good teaching methods in this subject area, he must have certain characteristics above and beyond those necessary for just a good teacher. First, he must be an example of good speech. This should not suggest that the speech and drama teacher should use stage diction. On the contrary, stage speech for regular classroom teaching is usually interpreted by pupils as an affectation, and it suggests a lack of sincerity. The speech teacher's voice and articulation should be pleasant and clear, but not a product of acquired stage diction.

Speech and drama classes, due to the nature of their subject activities, demand that the instructor be willing to put in a great deal of time in extracurricular activities. Those teachers who have personal demands on time outside of school are ordinarily hindered in carrying out successfully a program for their subjects.

A teacher in this area of learning should have an excellent background in language structure and grammar. The teacher must not only be able to correct poor English usage, but he must also be able to *teach* correct usage. Needless to say, the speech teacher must be equipped to handle oral English just as the composition teacher must be prepared to handle written English. A successful speech teacher should be one who meets people well and mixes easily with them. Co-operation with other teachers in the school, with outside clubs, and with PTA organizations is essential to the speech arts instructor. Speech pathology, physiology, and psychology should be an integral part of the speech and drama teacher's background. Since a knowledge in these fields is important in preparing and handling pupils, the teacher will need to be well versed in all of them. Lastly, the speech and drama teacher must at all times be a "service man" to his classes, to his school, and to his community.

Good, sound teaching methods and devices are just as applicable in the speech fields as they are in any of the other subject matter fields. However, there are some devices and methods which pertain more directly to this subject area. In the first place, the speech classroom, whether it be in radio, in public speaking, or in drama, should be an attractive place. There are many devices which can be used advantageously to attain this. Audio-visual aids are, to a large extent, the answer to this problem. Each speech room should be equipped with a bulletin board of good size. The pupils, under the guidance of the teacher, can prepare very worth-while materials for display on the bulletin board. Many of these can actually be drill devices for work in speech improvement. Other displays may make good use of pictures, mounted attractively, to correlate with subject matter being studied, or for motivation in presenting new units of work. Wherever and whenever possible, the speech classroom should have available for its use microphones for broadcasting, tape and disc recorders for voice recording, and of course, a phonograph. Excellent records are available for the speech and drama teacher. These records include readings of poetry, scenes from plays, and outstanding speeches in the field of public address. The teacher can make excellent use of these records for motivating new units of work as well as for use in culminations.

Charts should be made and used in speech and drama classes. Too often the teacher is at a loss to know how to keep the class interested in pupil readings and speeches. If charts dealing with voice and articulation are prepared, they can be used for the "listener" to evaluate the "performer." Other charts dealing with speech delivery needs, or with speech content, can also be prepared and used in the same way. These devices encourage class discussion and criticism. Often it is necessary for a drama class to have play rehearsal during class periods. Again, the listeners become a problem to the teacher. Should they just sit and watch the rehearsal, or should the teacher, while directing, give them a busy-work assignment? Here again, a chart or a mimeographed check sheet can very well be used by the listeners to evaluate the performers. Time should be taken in class for reviewing the evaluations made by the listeners. The teacher will be surprised at the excellent suggestions which can be made in this manner.

The way in which comments and criticism are handled in speech is of great importance. The teacher will find, in any class, that the ability of the pupils in oral activities is varied. Certainly all are not born equal in the capacity to express orally. The good speech teacher will not only be cognizant of this fact, but he will also handle this situation with great care. The teacher must accept the pupil on the level for which he has a capacity to express himself orally. The pupil's entire attitude toward speech may greatly be influenced by the very first criticism the teacher gives relative to the pupil's oral ability. The

teacher must help to develop the pupil *from his individual capacity*. All criticism should be handled from the constructive point of view. The wise teacher will find something *favorable* to say about the pupil's oral expression before any criticism or suggestion is offered. At times this may present a problem as it may seem that there is practically nothing good about the pupil's activity in speech. The teacher in such a case will help him by saying that his posture was good, or his notes were held well, or that his voice was well modulated. The pupil will strive to improve if he feels he is excelling in some phase. Praise is a great motivating factor, particularly in the field of speech.

If the opposite technique is used—that of giving criticism first—the pupil will feel defeated and embarrassed, and his next attempt at oral delivery will be a painful and unpleasant experience. If the instructor can use the indirect approach in reaching the pupil relative to criticism, he will feel that he is excelling in some phase, and he will be eager to put forth effort to excel in other phases.

Another technique which is helpful in speech and drama classes is to start the class with a speech (oral expression) project rather than with drill and background work. Most pupils select courses in the speech field because they are interested in speaking, or in radio production, or in taking part in a play. If the teacher can harness the pupil's functional motivation to the introduction of his course, he will undoubtedly establish interest in the course work, and the pupil attitudes so established probably will be more permanent.

Too often the teacher of drama will introduce the class to the subject by assigning the reading of *Antigone* or some other Greek drama. Too often this assignment baffles the pupil, and his interest in the course is lost. Similar occurrences happen in public speaking with the assignment of a drill lesson in articulation. This work is, of course, of great importance, but, if presented for the first lesson, the pupils lose their interest in the subject. How much better it would be to assign simple speeches of introduction, affording the pupil the opportunity to participate in an actual speech performance activity. The same fault is often found in the introduction to a radio class, with the first assignment being a textbook chapter dealing with the history of radio. Again, how much better it would be to keep the pupil's interest by allowing him to participate in a simple oral activity—perhaps the making of a short announcement before a real microphone.

The speech teacher should realize that all pupils enrolled in his class should share in oral activities. It is easy to give play parts or speaking assignments to the capable or gifted pupil at the expense of the one who does not perform too well in an oral project. Actually it is the latter pupil who needs the extra oral work, and the teacher should supply oral situations for his performance. There are many ways in which this may be achieved. Classroom projects and

exchange programs with other classes may well serve to supply this pupil with speech activities. The easy thing to do is to push the capable pupil and permit him to do more than his share of performing; however, if the less capable pupil is given opportunities, he too will improve.

Lastly, a good speech teacher will give his classes purposeful, functional speech work. His main aim is not to produce great actors or great speakers, but rather to develop in his pupils good, pleasant speech, and to help them become capable of expressing themselves clearly and accurately. He should not overlook the important part speech plays in such daily occurrences as telephoning, introducing people, applying for a position, and giving directions.

Speech is a tool for the entire school curriculum and for life. The speech teacher's job is an important one. That is why the teacher of speech arts should be chosen wisely. His methods of teaching are of great importance and should be employed to give the pupils correct training and background in the field of speech—the most commonly used medium for the release and expression of emotion—the subject which provides an opportunity for the development of personal effectiveness and the opportunity for social adjustment.

Audio-Visual Aids for the Speech Teacher

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THE value of audio-visual aids does not have to be sold to the speech teacher. Like his compatriots in the secondary-school system, he has scheduled field trips, movies, filmstrips, and slides; has covered blackboards, overhead projectors, paper, and cardboard with drawings and diagrams; has used tape recorders, the opaque projector, flannel graphs and bulletin boards; has employed maps and models; and has demonstrated his points vocally and physically. The speech teacher does not have to be sold audio-visual aids, but he may require instruction in his use of these teaching aids and help in selecting aids that fit his needs. In this article, we shall suggest briefly where such instruction and assistance may be procured. We shall also list representative 16 mm. films and filmstrips.

One of the most useful repositories of information and assistance available to the speech teacher is the simply written and relatively inclusive *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* by Edgar Dale (New York: Dryden, 1946). In it the teacher and his administrators will find suggestions for utilizing many readily available teaching techniques as well as careful evaluations of the techniques

themselves. Of particular interest to the college instructor but still of much value to the high-school teacher is *Accent on Learning*, produced in 1949 and distributed by the Ohio State University. Another film is *Tips for Teachers*, produced by Jam Handy in 1942, and, except for occasional haminess, an excellent illustration of good teaching techniques. A teacher who has digested Dale and has viewed the two films will, perhaps, refrain from such common errors as cluttering a board, talking to the illustrative material instead of to the class, showing illustrations which cannot be seen by members of the audience, and using films and filmstrips as substitutes instead of aids.

But the speech teacher will need more than one book and two films to acquaint himself with the rapidly expanding audio-visual aids area. A minimum reading list should include at least three periodicals: *Educational Screen, See and Hear*, and *Audio-Visual Guide*. Bulletins like the *Educational Film Library Association Bulletin* and the *Newsletter*, Edgar Dale, editor, Bureau of Educational Research, The Ohio State University, will prove to be interesting and useful reading. In his search for films and filmstrips, the teacher will find the following indices and catalogs necessary or, at least, helpful: *Educator's Guide to Free Films*, *Educator's Guide to Free Film Strips*, *Educational Film Guide*, *Film Strip Guide*, *Film World*, *The Index of Training Films*, *Sound Slidefilm Guide*, *United States Government Films for School and Industry*, and *One Thousand and One*.

Particularly valuable to the teacher are the catalogs distributed by state departments of education, agriculture, and health and the excellent film rental library catalogs of many state universities like Indiana, Wisconsin, Illinois, Michigan, California, Nebraska, and several private institutions like New York University. In addition to these sources, the interested teacher will peruse the catalogs of private film rental agencies like the Engleman Visual Education Service of Detroit and the large distributors like the International Film Bureau, Coronet, Encyclopaedia Britannica, Castle, and Young America. Also, he will check the reviews of current films, filmstrips, and records in such periodicals as the *Speech Teacher*, *NEA Journal*, *Scholastic* (Teacher's edition), and the *Saturday Review of Literature*.

In the predominantly audio area, the speech teacher will find a great deal of current material in the catalogs of the large recording companies like Victor, Columbia, Decca, and Linguaphone and in the private catalogs of such firms as the Gramophone Shop of New York City. He will also garner good material from such sources as *Tapes for Teachers*, *New Tools for Learning*, and the *Selected Listing of Educational Records and Film Strips for More Effective Learning 1950-51*. Furthermore, he should check the programs of many high-caliber radio (and television) stations like WKAR of Michigan State College, WOSU of Ohio State University, WBOE of Cleveland, KSLH of St. Louis, WOI of Iowa State, and WNYC and WQXR of New York City.

The current glamor girls of the audio-visual aids area are, without question, films and filmstrips—and with much justification. Consequently, lists of films and filmstrips which can be used in the speech curricula are eagerly sought by many teachers. Of course, such lists are useful—they do save time and they do make converts. Therefore, with some trepidation, we offer the following sampling of the many items listed in the catalogs and indices already mentioned. We do so with the additional warning that this is not a selective list; that the descriptions are, in the main, catalog descriptions; and that the wise teacher will preview any item he may select for classroom use. He will then prepare the class for the film or filmstrip, which he will use as his aid and not as his substitute.

SUGGESTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Each item listed below indicates the source and address of the company when first listed. Repeated listings of items from the same company carries the name of the company but not the address.

General Speech

Developing Leadership. Sound, 1 reel. Sale: B&W, \$45; Color, \$90. Principles needed for leadership and how to develop leadership qualities. Available from Coronet Films, Coronet Building, Chicago.

Do Words Ever Fool You? Sound, 10 min. Sale: B&W, \$45; Color, \$90. How to prevent the confusion of word meanings. Available from Coronet Films.

Find the Information. Sound, 1 reel. Sale or lease; B&W or color. Shows pupils how to find reliable information quickly through use of indices. Available from Coronet Films.

How To Judge Authorities. Sound, 1 reel. Sale: B&W, \$45; Color, \$90. How to determine authoritative statements. Available from Coronet Films.

Propaganda Techniques. Sound, 1 reel. Sale: B&W, \$45; Color, \$90. The methods of recognizing and evaluating propaganda. Available from Coronet Films.

Your Voice. Sound. Sale, \$50. Rental: B&W, \$2.50; Color, \$4. Describes the phases of voice production, shows photography of the vocal folds in operation and emphasizes the role of proper vocal exercise. Available from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., Wilmette, Ill.

Public and Business Speaking

How To Make a Sales Presentation Stay Presented. Sound, 30 min. Apply for loan. Fundamental instructions in salesmanship. Available from Modern Talking Picture Service, Inc., 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

How To Remember Names and Faces. Sound, 30 min. Loan. B&W. Dramatizes five ways to remember names and faces of sales prospects. Available from Modern Talking Pictures, 4754 Woodward Ave., Detroit 1, Mich.

New Voice for Mr. X. Sound, 21 min. Loan. A mythical character improves telephone habits and incorrect telephone usage through "Hear Your Telephone Voice" demonstration. Available from local office of American Telephone and Telegraph Co.

Selling America. Sound, 20 min. Sale, \$85. Rental, apply. Illustrates how Benjamin Franklin's ideas of human interest influences are beneficial to the salesman. Available from Jam Handy, Detroit 11, Mich.

Show 'Em and Sell 'Em. Sound, 16 min. Sale: B&W, \$46. This filmstrip illustrates the showing and demonstrating phase of a sale and instructs sales people in the planning and conduction of a demonstration. Available from Film Research Associates, 135 W. 52nd St., New York 19.

Speech: Function of Gestures. Sound, 11 min. Explains the function of the gesture in public speaking. Available from Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41st St., New York 17.

Speech: Platform Posture and Movement. Sound, 11 min. Demonstrates good platform posture and movement. Available from Young America Films.

Speech: Stage Fright and What To Do About It. Sound, 11 min. Explains causes of stage fright and what can be done to conquer it. Available from Young America Films.

Discussion

Discussion in Democracy. Sound, 1 reel. Sale: B&W, \$45; Color, \$90. This film develops a threefold program for democratic discussion: (1) preparation, (2) planning, and (3) personalities. Available from Coronet Films.

Learning from Class Discussion. Sound, 10 min. Sale: B&W, \$45; Color, \$90. Illustrates the value and necessity of worth-while discussion. Available from Coronet Films.

How Not To Conduct a Meeting. Sound, 10 min. Loan. Col. Stoopnagel burlesques common errors and omissions encountered in poorly planned and poorly conducted meetings. Available from General Motors Corp., Department of Public Relations, Detroit 2, Mich.

How To Lead a Discussion. 81 frames with guide. Sale, \$3. This filmstrip illustrates the processes and techniques of group discussion. Available from Schauffler College of Religious and Social Work, 5115 Fowler Ave., Cleveland 27, Ohio.

Theatre

ABC's of Hand Tools, Parts I and II. Sound, 18 min. each. Color. Loan. Produced by Walt Disney, this film shows the proper way to handle tools. Part I covers the hammer, screw driver, pliers, and wrench; Part II covers saws, chisels, planes, and punches. Available from General Motors Corp.

It's Not All Play. Silent, 40 min. B&W. Rental, apply. The process of preparing a production for the stage from the beginning to the end. A trip behind the scenes. Available from Dept. of Drama, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

Marionettes—Construction and Manipulation. Sound, 10 min. B&W. Rental, \$2. Bobo, a clown marionette, is constructed and then seen in action. All the tools, construction, and manipulation are shown. Available from Brandon Films, Inc., 1700 E. Broadway, New York 19.

Shakespeare and Stratford-on-Avon. Silent, 14 min. Rental, \$1. Shows the home of Shakespeare and presents a description of the outstanding events of his life. Available from Bell and Howell, 1801 Larchmont Ave., Chicago 13.

Theatre Design. Silent, 15 min. Sale or rental. Shows the emotional coloring of lighting effects. Available from Art Films, 650 Ocean Ave., Brooklyn 26, N. Y.

Producing a Play Series. (7 motion pictures) Sound, 10 min. each. Three in color. Sale: package price, \$475; color films individually, \$100; B&W, \$50. Rental: Color, \$5; B&W, \$2.50. Produced at the Goodman School, the series uses an adaptation by Louise Spoor of Tom Sawyer as an example. Titles include: *Directing a Play*, *Acting Problems*, *Designing a Set* (color), *Building a Set*, *Make-up for Boys* (color), *Make-up for Girls*

(color), and *Managing a Play*. Also *As You Like It*, Sound, 78 min. B&W. Rental, \$17.50. The Lawrence Olivier and Elizabeth Bergner production of 1936. Available from Ideal Pictures Corp. 26 E. 8 Street, Chicago.

Macbeth. Sound, 78 min. B&W. Rental, \$15. A full presentation. Selected as one of the ten best amateur films of 1947 by the Amateur Cinema League. Available from Willow Distributing Co., 13 E. 37th St., New York 16.

Journey to Jerusalem. Sound, 90 min. B&W. Rental, \$25. A screening of the Maxwell Anderson play as performed by the Playwrights Company, with the closeup being the only concession to motion-picture technique. Available from Theatre-on Films Inc., 145 W. 45th St., New York 22.

Julius Caesar. Sound, 19 min. B&W. Rental, \$3. The forum scene (Scene II, Act II) which follows the assassination of Caesar. Produced by Sydney Box and directed by Henry Cass. Available from British Information Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Master Will Shakespeare. Sound, 11 min. B&W. Rental, \$1.50. A brief story of Shakespeare's life with emphasis on his play *Romeo and Juliet*. A vivid picture of an Elizabethan theatre production. Available from Teaching Films Custodians, 25 W. 43rd St., New York 18.

Clinic

Ears and Hearing. Sound, 10 min. B&W. Sale, \$50; Rental, \$1.50. (University of Michigan) Describes the physiology of the ear by means of animated drawings and close-up photography of the ear as it is functioning. Available from Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Pay Attention: Problems of Hard of Hearing Children. Sound, 30 min. B&W. Sale, \$120; Rental, \$6. Presents some of the educational and personality problems faced by the pupil who is hard of hearing but not deaf. Also suggests some of the ways in which parents, teachers, and specialists can help. Available from New York University Film Library, 26 Washington Pl., New York 3.

A Day in the Life of a Cerebral Palsied Child. Sound, 30 min. Color. Rental, \$3. Available from National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, 11 S. LaSalle St., Chicago.

A Report on Donald. Sound, 20 min. Color. Rental, \$3. A stutterer's progress at the University of Minnesota. Available from University of Minnesota, Visual Education Service, Minneapolis, Minn.

Speech Training for the Handicapped Child. Sound, 30 min. Color. Rental, \$3. Summer rehabilitation programs as carried on at four college centers in Illinois. Available from Division of Services for Crippled Children, University of Illinois, Springfield, Ill.

Radio and Television

Electronics at Work. Sound, 20 min. B&W. Loan. A simple exposition of the technical aspects of radio. Available from Westinghouse Electric Co., School Service, 306 Fourth Ave., Box 1017, Pittsburgh 30, Pa.

Magic in the Air. Sound, 10 min. B&W. Loan. A behind-the-scenes visit to the TV studios at Radio City, showing the construction of the iconoscope which is the sender, and of the kinescope which is the receiver. Available from General Motors Corp.

Television Today. Sound, 35 min. B&W. Loan. The story of television operation including programming, the audience as a sales medium, and some technical aspects. Available from any local CBS station.

Providing for Individual Differences in the Classroom

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THE teacher of speech fundamentals has an exceptionally fine opportunity to provide a very real and worth-while service to boys and girls in helping them to grow each to the limit of his own capacity. Unless the pupil is definitely sub-normal or handicapped, he should have little trouble in attaining the minimum performance in speech skills. Often, he far exceeds them. For those who in the more academic subjects are accustomed to receiving D's or failing grades, this is indeed a satisfying experience. For those who possess special talents or abilities in the art of oral communication, the experience may be rich and rewarding.

Let us assume that on the first day of school the teacher has before her a class of about twenty-five juniors and seniors who, for one reason or another, have elected to take the course. Let us further assume that those who have defective speech and/or hearing have, through the services of the school, been eliminated. Most states now have special programs for pupils with speech and hearing difficulties. In fact, the state legislatures of Illinois, Oregon, and Connecticut have passed bills providing for special education for all handicapped children, among which speech and hearing difficulties rank high in number.¹ A speech class is likely to be unique in that normal distribution based on I.Q.'s is often skewed at both ends. Pupils who have a special talent or ability in that field have elected it because they really want to learn more about the subject. Some have been advised to take speech because their difficulties have been observed and still others are there because they think it is easier than English.

Whatever the reason, it is wise to focus attention on some common objectives. A good way to start is by asking the pupils to write on an unsigned paper just what they would like to get out of the course that they think would benefit them. Without fail, it turns out that at least nine tenths of the class want to acquire confidence in themselves. Some say they want to get over being scared in front of a group, others that they want to get rid of shaking knees, "butterflies" in the stomach, or dryness in the mouth. It all amounts to the same thing—gaining self-confidence.

Right here is where the teacher must begin to make her personality felt. Butler calls it the "neglected difference," that is, the personal relation of

¹ Kramer, M. E., "Trends in Speech Education," *School Executive*, 69: 48-50, August 1950.

teacher and pupil.² Margaret Painter describes it thus: "For developing oral communication the first task is establishing in the classroom an atmosphere of friendliness and mutual confidence."³ To these could be added another element—that of responsibility to each other. Make the class understand that any future presentation will not be given just for the teacher, but for the approval of the audience, since in most life situations one is judged, not by a teacher, but by the group with which he is communicating. Therefore, each member of the class has an important responsibility to his fellows in giving his suggestions whenever he can. A class discussion of what constitutes constructive criticism is in order, and the class sets its own pattern of helpful criticism. Much time should be spent at the beginning of the course and continued throughout in putting the pupil at ease. No person can develop to the limit of his capacities when he is hampered by feelings of insecurity and lack of confidence in himself. This situation alone would make it difficult and well nigh impossible to detect where the pupil really needs help. For instance, the teacher might be working to help a pupil lower the pitch of his voice when actually that is a temporary condition induced by tension in the speaking situation.

No one can tell a teacher how to go about establishing rapport and building up the self-confidence of pupils. The ways are as varied as are the personalities of individual teachers. One can only suggest. In addition to guiding the pupils to set up their own pattern of criticism, some of the following devices may be helpful. Sometime during the first week, drag out the bug-a-boo of stage fright from its hiding place and examine it. Point out that everyone in the room feels the same—scared at the thought of giving a speech. Help them to realize that this condition is not peculiar to speech alone, that it exists whenever they are faced with a situation in which they want to do well—whether it precedes an important test, going out on the football field, playing in the band, or dating a new boy (or girl). And, finally, let them know that it is a perfectly normal feeling; in fact, if they didn't feel nervous they would be somewhat abnormal. The only thing that they have to learn is to channel their nervous energy in the right direction—in this case, to put some pep and "punch" into the speech. Impromptu talks in the spirit of "just for fun" are a good follow-up; later, extemporaneous talks can be introduced.

After it has been made perfectly clear to them that the teacher is there to help them attain their goals, explain to them that knowing as much about them as possible will be a great aid in helping them, and then introduce the speech history questionnaire. This is extremely important because, according to Murray, "Anything that affects the welfare of the person affects his whole speech. The speaker's personal, sociological, psychological, and physiological

² Butler, Frank, "Meeting Individual Differences," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 34: 108-114, December 1950.

³ Painter, M., "Improving Methods of Teaching Speech," *English Journal*, 37: 133-8.

backgrounds all contribute more or less directly to an understanding of his speech."⁴ The speech history should include information along the following main lines:⁵

1. The language background of the family in which you were reared—nationality and provincial influences.
2. The sort of speech training and experiences undergone by your parents and youthful associates.
3. The development of your speech through infancy and childhood.
4. The background and experience significant to your present poise, emotional control, and adjustment to social situations.
5. Your speech training and important speech experiences all through your school life until the present time.
6. Your present attitudes and traits that may have a relation to your speech behaviour.
7. Other special data of importance in your speech personality.

As soon as possible, the teacher should collect other data, which can probably be obtained from the school's records, about the pupils. Such information should include the I.Q., reading comprehension, interest inventory, and personality inventory. While none of these tests measure speech directly, they furnish valuable clues to possible speech problems. The I.Q. and reading comprehension tests, especially, give the teacher some idea of the level of speech performance that may be expected from each individual. The more complete the understanding of the individual, the more effective help he can be given in reaching the upper limits of his capacity in performance.

Another step in building up a feeling of friendliness and mutual help is for the pupils to get to know not only the teacher, but also each other. A unit on conversation accomplishes this objective as well as supplying information which most of them feel that they need.

As early as possible but not before they have begun to become imbued with the spirit of the class, they should make disc recordings of their voices—one side of the record only. The reason for having them do this before too much training takes place is to have it serve as a means of comparison. At the end of the course, the other side is recorded, and the pupil may hear for himself the improvement. These records are very popular and a motivation in the course.

Once the class is really launched, the teacher should guard against trying to cover too much material. Few refinements, actually achieved, are worth far more than many drilled upon but not mastered.⁶ According to Frank Butler, Professor of Education at the Pennsylvania State College, "Within a single class one can, in general, provide for learners by varying the *kind*, *amount*, or *depth* of learning."⁷ By kind he refers to materials that meet interests or preferences.

⁴ Murray, Elwood. *The Speech Personality*. P. 29.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 30.

⁶ Backus, Ollie. *Speech Education*. P. 340.

⁷ Butler, Frank, *op. cit.*, p. 109.

Amount refers to more of a subject, that is, greater area; and depth means to go deeper into meaning and applications. Speech, as a classroom subject, is admirably suited to this concept, for pupils may be allowed to select their own material for presentation within the rather wide limits of the assignment. Should anyone have trouble in selecting a subject, he may consult the teacher, and she, using her acquired knowledge of the individual, can help the pupil find a subject suited to his abilities and interests.

It would not be feasible to investigate all the areas in a fundamentals of speech class in which individual differences can be met. The "neglected difference" has been discussed at length because it is basic to providing for individual differences. A somewhat detailed account in the area of voice will serve to suggest further possibilities.

First of all, a discussion of voice qualities should take place in order to make pupils aware of such faults as high pitch, rapid rate, too loud or too soft voices, thinness, breathiness, hollowness, articulation, *etc.* As each pupil records his voice on a tape or wire recorder, have each member of the class indicate on a small piece of paper the speaker's best point and his weakest point. The teacher does the same. After the pupil hears his voice, he, too, tries to determine his strength and principal weakness. The class, the teacher, and the pupil compare reactions and decide together one or possibly two things the pupil may work on to improve his voice. The teacher then recommends specific exercises for him to practice. In this connection, the teacher needs to keep two facts in mind. The first is that the lack of a normal amount of pitch change in a boy fourteen to sixteen years of age may indicate some degree of emotional immaturity.⁸ The second is that there is a considerable amount of non-fluency which is characteristic of speech at all ages. Therefore, calling attention to non-fluency may be disastrous and might even lead to stuttering.⁹

Another performance may consist of interpretative readings of poetry or prose selections. For the very slow learner, he has satisfied the minimum requirement if he simply puts the meaning across. Those with more ability are expected to establish character, suggest mood, and reveal the attitude of the speaker. Before making their selections of material, the teacher demonstrates by doing several readings of varying degrees of difficulty. Here again the pupils may pick their poetry or prose within wide limits. The library puts on reserve a large number of books from which to make the choice. The class members often take two and three periods pouring through the books in order to find something they like well enough to read to the class. Individual differences are certainly observed here, because everything from "Casey at the Bat" to

⁸ Spriestersbach, D. C., and Buck, M. W., "Speech, An Index of Maturity," *Childhood Education*, 27: 263.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 262.

"Patterns" by Amy Lowell is presented. Since there is a minimum and maximum time limit, some flexibility exists here, also.

The subject of oral reading should not be passed over without some comment regarding its educational value Kramer states: "Recently educators have come to realize that development of oral reading skills does not interfere with silent reading. Oral reading skill is actually an asset in learning techniques of silent reading, for good oral reading requires a long-eye-span, concentration on thought units, recognition of and emphasis on thought-bearing words. Furthermore, through oral reading the pupil can share his liking for a particular story with his classmates and gain the satisfaction of group enjoyment."¹⁰

Individual differences can also be taken care of in the other speech skills—use of the body, oral language, and organization of content—by setting up minimum standards which even the slowest learner can meet with a feeling of having accomplished something. All of them can learn to sit and stand well and to "look alive" when speaking. They can also master the one-point talk, for the organization is simple. The better ones are able to develop more complicated and varied organization accompanied by well-co-ordinated and appropriate bodily movements.

Glenn Myers Blair, Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Illinois, has supplied us with three principles of major importance in guiding the learning of typical pupils. They are as follows:¹¹

1. The pupil must not be humiliated or made to feel inferior to other pupils.
2. The work must be geared to the level at which the pupil can successfully perform.
3. The work must directly tie-up with his interests and goals.

Certainly, if the atmosphere of the class room is one in which the teacher is one of the class and all have the responsibility of helping one another, then no pupil need ever feel humiliated. Indeed, a class may occasionally break into spontaneous applause because one of their number has made such remarkable improvement in the very thing on which they thought he ought to work. Because of the information that has been collected at the beginning of the course about each pupil, it is quite possible to help him set goals for himself that are within his reach and within the realm of his interests. Hearing both sides of his record at the end of the course gives him the final feeling of success and accomplishment.

¹⁰ Kramer, M. E., *op. cit.*, p. 50.

¹¹ Blair, G. M., "Provisions for Atypical Children," *High School Journal*, 33: 25-29.

Classroom Criticism of Speech Pupils

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THE dean of American teachers of speech, Andrew T. Weaver, has pointed out that speech is a mosaic, made up of items of knowledge and technique drawn from other fields.¹ It follows, then, that one of the basic problems in training pupils to become more effective speakers is whether to break up the mosaic and attempt to teach these items in isolation or to treat speech as a unified phenomenon in human life, teaching speech as a complete entity in itself. Teachers of English have long recognized this same controversy in their field, some arguing that to teach composition, one must begin by teaching the parts of speech and the varied and numerous rules for punctuation while others argue that we can best teach writing by writing (and reading).

Although it is not the purpose of this article to try to solve this problem, the pedagogical implications of these two theories must be recognized by the conscientious teacher when he attempts to criticize classroom speech projects. Should he—indeed, can he—attempt to criticize the speech in terms only of its total audience effect and response or, on the other hand, should his analysis include such specific items as gesture, emphasis, organization, diction, *etc.*?

A second problem which is suggested by Dr. Weaver's observation is whether the teacher of speech, in order to be a competent critic, must be an expert in all the possible fields of knowledge which might be embraced in a pupil speech. Can he, for instance, adequately appraise anything and everything from the speech on electroencephalography to the speech on raising mink for fun and profit unless he himself has an encyclopedic knowledge?

Still a third problem involved in this matter of classroom speech criticism is the establishment of standards. Is the pupil speaker to be rated in terms of his own peculiar abilities and handicaps, in terms of his proficiency with relation to others in the class, or should he be measured against a set of preconceived and rigid standards? Further, by what standards shall the teacher judge? What, specifically, constitutes good or poor speaking? In an artificial classroom exercise, especially, how can the teacher accurately measure audience response?² Is it possible for one person, with all the complexity and variability of the speech situation, to assess the worth of a speech in terms of a grade?

Finally, once these first three questions have been answered in the mind of the teacher, by what method of criticism can he most efficiently develop better

¹ Weaver, A. T., "The Case for Speech," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, April, 1939, Vol. 25, No. 2, p. 181.

² Henrickson, Ernest, "An Analysis of the Characteristics of Some Good and Poor Speakers," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 11, 1944, p. 120.

speech habits among his pupils? Should he interrupt a speech to point out errors, or should he allow the speaker to struggle on to the end before offering suggestions? Should comments be made after every speech, or is it more effective, perhaps, to hear several at a time and then lump general critical comments together, pointing out only those errors apparently common to all and reserving individual analysis for private conferences? Again, many teachers rely on pupil criticism and rating, while others declare that pupil criticism is invalid and incompetent.

For the experienced teacher of speech, these problems are no doubt of only academic interest. Within the framework of their experience, they have probably worked out solutions to all of them; and yet, for the beginning teacher, they represent perhaps the most frightening aspect of the teaching of speech. One general purpose of the article is to examine some of the various methods of criticism and to indicate the position of the teacher's criticism in training young people to be more effective speakers.

Every teacher of speech recognizes that appreciative, sympathetic, and constructive criticism is a primary basis for improvement in pupil performance. O'Neill has set up four elements in the training of speakers: "motivation, knowledge, practice, and criticism."³ Without that final step, the training program is incomplete. The first educational value in practicing speeches in front of a classroom audience is that they may be diagnosed and evaluated. Densmore, in his article "The Teaching of Speech Delivery," states: "... no speech should be given without instructor or student criticisms. Without these reactions, the speaker is speaking in a vacuum, wasting his time and the time of his colleagues and instructor."⁴ A paragraph from Winans *Public Speaking* offers still further support for the importance of criticism in the teaching of speech: "... the greatest advantage (in classroom speech assignments) is that the student can get honest, intelligent criticism by one who is trained to the work and who had the experience in watching the development of many other students. Competent criticism is extremely hard to get elsewhere. The unskillful will usually touch upon the incidental rather than the essential; they will base their comments upon a very mechanical view of the subject, and they will usually criticize too much."⁵

Once the importance of criticism is thus recognized, it is easy to appreciate the apprehension of beginning teachers in this respect. Let us assume that he has agreed upon a philosophy of education which resolves the whole *vs.* part theory, that he recognizes the obvious fact that he need not be an expert in all

³ O'Neill, James, "Method and Practice in the Learning Process," in A. M. Drummond and others, *Speech Training and Public Speaking*, New York: Century Co., 1925. P. 103.

⁴ Densmore, G. E., "The Teaching of Speech Delivery," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, February 1946, Vol. 32, No. 1, p. 71.

⁵ Winans, James. *Public Speaking*. New York: Century Co. 1915. P. 107.

fields of knowledge to be a competent critic, and that he has agreed upon the standards he wishes to use. With those problems settled in terms of the teacher's own training, philosophy, and personality, let us examine in some detail the actual method of presenting critical comment.

At the outset, the unique relationship between pupil and teacher in the speech classroom must be understood. In no other subject is this relationship quite so close or quite so significant in terms of pupil development and progress. As Densmore states, the teacher of speech "must have an ingenuity, an imagination, and a physical and mental alertness that will enable him to bring to the classroom day after day a wealth of genuine inspiration."⁶ Nowhere is this more true than in the criticism of speech projects. Thonssen and Gilkinson, in commenting on the role of the teacher as critic, point out that he must have "insight, experience, and objectivity. He must be sufficiently candid to be helpful and at the same time sufficiently tactful to avoid offense."⁷ Again, Densmore says that the skillful teacher-critic "must have a trained ear and must be able to sense how far he can go with an individual student without offending him. He must be friendly but firm."⁸

Perhaps the most important single area of criticism is in the appraisal of the first speech performance. One very successful teacher uses the guinea pig technique to break the ice, inviting into the first class meeting a pupil who purposely gives a bad performance. The teacher gives him "the works" in terms of criticism, and the rest of the class breathes a sign of relief, knowing that they can do better. The soundness of such a method, however, might well be questioned on the grounds that the general class attitude, the emphatic reaction will undoubtedly be on the side of the pupil and a harsh criticism by the instructor—even though justified—may arouse antagonism.

Most teachers of speech feel that early assignments should be appraised by the instructor. It is vital that the teacher try to encourage the beginning speaker. Even though a speech may have obvious errors, he should try to commend the pupil on something contained in the speech. The psychological implications of a discouraging critique early in a speech course can destroy any motivation that the pupil may have had prior to his performance. The fact that he has struggled to his feet and presented his ideas—no matter how poorly—is better than no performance at all. Too often the pupil is frightened out of a speech by remembrance of past criticism.

It is generally agreed that pupil criticism is also valuable, both for the speaker and the critic. When the nature of speech criticism is explored, it is obvious

⁶ Densmore, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

⁷ Thonssen, Lester, and Gilkinson, Howard. *Basic Training in Speech*, Brief Edition. Boston: D. C. Heath Co. 1949. P. 6.

⁸ Densmore, *op. cit.*, p. 69.

that audience response as much as teacher-critic response must count in any evaluation. As Thonssen and Gilkinson state, "The listener is the ultimate consumer and, as in the case of marketed commodities, his reactions constitute the standards by which the worth of a speech must be judged."⁹ This is a fundamental assumption—that the average of the ratings by a number of people is the true rating or at least the best estimate of a true rating.¹⁰

In guiding pupils to act as critics, a checklist often helps to assure definite reactions. Avoid, however, making the pupil-listener too intent on finding something to criticize. Thonssen and Gilkinson differentiate between basic criticism, wherein the listener merely states whether he did or did not like a speech—and expert criticism wherein the listener attempts to analyze the probable effect of the speech on other listeners and makes direct suggestions to the speaker on the ways and means whereby he can improve his performance. It is toward the latter goal that the competent teacher is striving in fostering pupil criticism.

Another method which can be employed for variety and also to save time is to have a group of from four to six speeches given consecutively without comment, and then use the comparative type of criticism, balancing one speaker's points against another's.

The simplest method of criticism and one which has limited value if done carelessly is suggested by Densmore. He calls it the work-out, wherein "the student knows that the instructor will interrupt him at various intervals during his speech with suggestions for improvement right then and there before the audience."¹¹ The value in this procedure lies in the fact that the pupil will sense the difference and improvement in his performance once he has been corrected. The danger of this procedure is that the pupil will be so shaken by an instructor who lacks the proper approach that he will lose all confidence in himself. A corollary to the work-out method is the use of signs or signals. By this procedure a teacher can "coach" the pupil while he is in the process of giving his speech. This technique provides the timeliness of the work-out and still avoids actual interruption.

In conclusion, let us remember that the improvement of speech habits is the ultimate goal and that whatever means of criticism seems most suitable for a particular teacher's personality will likely be the most effective. Since different pupils may require different techniques, it is the job of the good teacher to know his pupils well enough so that he can adapt his critical procedures to these individual differences.

⁹ Thonssen and Gilkinson, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

¹⁰ Thompson, Wayne N., "An Experimental Study of the Accuracy of Typical Speech Rating Techniques," *Speech Monographs*, Vol. 9, 1944, p. 70.

¹¹ Densmore, *op. cit.*, p. 70.

Numerical Indexes of Speech Skill

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ALTHOUGH ranks and ratings are commonly used in speech contests, numerical indexes of speech skill and related variables have been developed for the most part in connection with research. In this section we shall be concerned with the possible use of such indexes by classroom teachers. It is recognized that the problems and interests of the investigator and the teacher differ to some extent. The former usually deals with trends emerging from mass data; the latter deals with individual pupils in relatively small groups. The former wishes to know if the trends in his data confirm some general hypothesis; the latter wishes to know if a particular index says something of importance about a particular person—where he ranks on a scale of speech skill or on a scale of some associated variable or how much his speech has improved. In the following discussion we will take the point of view of the teacher, rather than that of the investigator. We will begin with some ways of recording the reactions of listeners, then discuss some scales and inventories which reflect the attitudes or personality of the speaker, and, lastly, take up the measurement of speech skill and the use of numerical indexes in the judging of speech contests. References are given for the benefit of those who wish to read more about these topics than is included here.

REACTIONS OF LISTENERS

Ratings—The most common and perhaps most useful way of getting an index of a speaker's skill is to have him rated on a numerical scale. This can be done in class. The simplest method is to have all the pupils participate in the rating, each rating each. In a class of twenty-five pupils this procedure would yield twenty-four ratings for each speaker. These can be averaged, giving the class judgment for each of the twenty-five speakers. The raters can be asked to rate on "general effectiveness," or on some particular aspect of speech behavior such as delivery. Or separate scales can be provided for a number of aspects: diction, composition, gesticulation, *etc.* Teachers interested in developing or using such scales are advised to examine those developed by Wilke.¹

What classroom value do such ratings have? They provide a fairly accurate indication of a group's reaction to a speaker. The teacher might find it profitable to check his own judgments against the averaged ratings. He might well analyze instances of wide divergence with a view to revision of his own or his pupils'

¹ Wilke, Walter H., "A Speech Profile," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 1940, 36: 625-630. The scales described in this reference have been published by the Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York.

standards of judgment. Similar divergencies among individual pupil judgments may serve very well as a starting point for classroom discussion of standards.

Identification of Emotional Expression—Another means of giving a numerical value to the speech skill of an individual is by testing his ability to produce emotional expressions which can be identified by a group of listeners. Dusenbury and Knower² studied the identifiability of the emotional expressions of skillful speakers, and the latter³ published a report showing wide individual differences among college students. The test may be conducted as follows. Each pupil is given a list of emotions to be expressed. These are arranged in random order (a different order for each pupil to be tested). The pupil then stands before the group and uses abstract sounds, such as A-B-C-D-E-F, to express the different emotions in the order they appear on his list. The listeners write down the emotions as they hear them, or indicate their order of appearance on a prepared form. The speaker's score is the percentage of correct identifications of his emotional expressions. Wide individual differences are usually found in a class of twenty or twenty-five pupils, as regards total scores and also as regards ability to express particular emotions. The score provides an objective index of speech skill and strong motivation for the pupil speaker.

Tests of Retention—We now turn to some ways of getting objective data on audience response, which, although they do not permit the ranking of individual speakers on a scale of relative skill, might, nevertheless, prove interesting and instructive as classroom exercises. One of these is the testing of how much the listeners remember of what they hear. Let each pupil prepare a serious argumentative or expository speech and then make out a simple, short, objective test of some of the items of information and/or argumentation contained in the speech. The test may be made up in true-false, completion, or multiple-choice form, although the latter two reduce successful guessing and therefore may be more desirable in a short test. The pupil then gives his speech, the listeners take the test, the pupil scores the tests, and reports to the class which items were remembered and which forgotten. The pupil then tries to explain the outcome of his test on the basis of the attitudes of the listeners and the way he handled his materials. This experience should provide the pupil with a good object lesson of the difficulties inherent in language communication and impress upon him the desirability of using ways of re-enforcing and emphasizing ideas.

Shift of Opinion Ballot—Ballots may be used to get a numerical index of audience reaction. Various forms may be used, one of the most common of

² Dusenbury, Delwin, and Knower, Franklin, "Experimental Studies of the Symbolism of Action and Voice II; A Study of the Specificity of Meaning in Abstract Tonal Symbols," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 1939, 25: 67-75.

³ Knower, Franklin, "Studies in the Symbolism of Voice and Action. V: The Use of Behavioral and Tonal Symbols as Tests of Speaking Achievement," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1945, 29: 229-235.

which is the shift-of-opinion-ballot.⁴ It can be used to measure the opinions of an audience before and after hearing an argumentative speech. Before the speech the listeners are asked to check one of three responses:

1. I believe in the affirmative of the proposition.
2. I am undecided.
3. I believe in the negative of the proposition.

After the speech the listeners are asked to check one of five responses:

1. I believe more strongly in the affirmative of the proposition than I did.
2. I believe in the affirmative of the proposition.
3. I am undecided.
4. I believe in the negative of the proposition.
5. I believe more strongly in the negative of the proposition than I did.

The score for each speaker is the difference between the positive and negative shifts divided by the total number of listeners, each shift, great or small, being a value of one.

It is also possible to use the simple "for-neutral-against" ballot form, before and after the speech is heard, and compute the positive shift as the percentage of those not initially in agreement with the speaker who shifted in that direction. The negative shift is the percentage of those initially in agreement with the speaker who change in the opposite direction. However, the shift-of-opinion ballot, first mentioned, is easy to compute, and it has the important advantage of using all the listeners; *i.e.*, all can shift in the direction desired by the speaker. Exempt under certain conditions which we will not discuss here, the shift-of-opinion ballot should not be used to place individual speakers on a scale of argumentative skill. But the information provided by the ballot can be used as the starting point of an interesting discussion for the success or failure of a speaker to win his audience to his point of view. As described, the balloting is done on the central idea of the speech. If desired, it could be used on the supporting arguments as well.

Pre-Speech Questionnaire—Speech instruction places much emphasis on the adaptation of the speaker to his audience. It might prove interesting to have the speaker ballot his audience several days before speaking and to use a brief questionnaire form to discover their views on particular issues involved in the question he plans to discuss, and their information on the subject. The speaker's task would then be to adjust his speaking to the attitudes, interests, and ideas revealed by the ballots and the questionnaire.

Content Analysis of Speech Criticism—Let each pupil in the class give a short speech and have each listener write out his criticism. Bring together the criticism sheets for each speaker and count the favorable and unfavorable comments, giving to each a value of one. This gives a crude numerical indication of the

⁴ Millson, W. A. D., "Measurement of Speech Values," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 1936, 22: 544-553.

reaction of the listeners to a speaker. The reliability of the method has not been studied, and probably it should not be used as a means of ranking speakers. However, it is possible to go beyond a simple count of favorable and unfavorable comments, and to classify the items to find if there is any centering of them upon some aspect or aspects of a speaker's behavior. Such centering may provide a significant commentary on the behavior of a speaker, and on the behavior of the listeners as well. As regards the latter, centering may reveal class pre-occupations and the ignoring of aspects of speech which deserve attention.

Sociometric Measures—In recent years teachers have developed a number of measuring devices which are useful in uncovering and analyzing pupil status, as reflected in the attitudes of pupils toward one another. Since the regard in which pupils are held by their classmates may both reflect and affect their speaking behavior, such measures may have considerable value for teachers of speech. At least three forms of sociometric measure are in use, the most common being the *partial-rank order* method developed by Morena and associates.⁵

In this method, pupils are presented with one or more activities and asked to select three or four classmates with whom they would prefer to be associated in these activities. Thus the question might be asked, "When the class is organized into committees, which four classmates would you prefer to work with in committee?" Sometimes pupils are also asked to list the three or four classmates whom they would reject as companions in the activity in question. A positive numerical value may be attached to each acceptance received by a pupil, and a negative value to each rejection, if such are solicited. Data may also be plotted on what is called a *sociogram*, in which the names of the pupils are arranged in a circle on a sheet of paper, and different colored lines drawn between names to show acceptance and rejection.

Despite its simplicity and popularity, certain disadvantages are often observed in the *partial-rank order method*. Many teachers prefer not to solicit rejections, fearing to solidify such reactions. Often there will be a large group of unrated pupils, whose status is difficult to interpret. A second method which overcomes these problems to some extent involves the use of a rating scale. A scale prepared by Thompson and Powell names an activity and asks each pupil to rate all other pupils along a seven point scale:⁶

1. Would be the very first one I would choose.
2. Would be one of the first three I would choose.
3. Would be one of the first six I would choose.
4. Would be one I might or might not choose.
5. Would be one of the last six I would choose.

⁵ Morena, J. L., *Who Shall Survive?* Washington, D. C.: Nervous and Mental Diseases Publishing Company, 1943.

⁶ Thompson, G. G., and Powell, Marvin, "An Investigation of the Rating Scale Approach to the Measurement of Social Status," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 1951, 11: No. 3, 440-455.

6. Would be one of the last three I would choose.

7. Would be the very last one I would choose.

Another sociometric method, a variation of the *Ohio Social Acceptance Scale*, has been reported by Justman and Wrightstone.⁷ A third type of sociometric method may be found in the various forms of the "Guess Who" test. Pupils are given short descriptions of persons with positive or negative personality characteristics, to which numerical values may be attached. The pupils then fill in the names of classmates whom they believe are being described. Or, pupils may be asked to cast their classmates for parts in a play, after being given descriptions of the characters in the play.

Teachers of speech may devise many variations of sociometric technique for recording reactions of pupils to their classmates in terms of personality and behavioral manifestations associated with speaking skill or class objectives. The results have value in diagnosing pupil problems and in some cases in judging improvement.

ATTITUDES OF THE SPEAKER

It is generally recognized that the attitudes of the pupil toward himself and toward others have an important role in determining how well he adjusts himself as a speaker. A number of inventories have been prepared which may be used by a teacher of speech who wishes information about the social attitudes of his students.

Speech Attitude Scale—This scale was prepared specifically for pupils of speech.⁸ It contains ninety-six items, permitting the pupil to indicate how he feels or behaves in a variety of situations. A total score can be computed.

Report on Confidence—Another inventory is called *Personal Report on Confidence as a Speaker*.⁹ It contains one hundred items, fifty indicating fear and fifty indicating confidence. It is usually given immediately or soon after the pupil has spoken. It is intended to express his fear or confidence on that particular occasion. A total score can be computed.

Personality Inventories—A good many personality inventories have been published by psychologists and some of the scores yielded by them, particularly those reflecting social adjustment, are related to speech skill. For example, the social adjustment scores of Bell's *Adjustment Inventory*¹⁰ yield a low order correlation with ratings on general speech effectiveness.

⁷ Justman, Joseph, and Wrightstone, J. Wayne, "A Comparison of Three Methods of Measuring Pupil Status in the Classroom," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 1951, 11: No. 3, 362-367.

⁸ Knower, Franklin, "A Study of Speech Attitudes and Adjustments," *Speech Monographs*, 1938, 5: 130-203. This scale is published by C. H. Stroetling Co., Chicago, Illinois.

⁹ Gilkinson, Howard, "Social Fears as Reported by Students in College Speech Classes," *Speech Monographs*, 1942, 9: 141-160.

¹⁰ Bell, Hugh M. *The Adjustment Inventory*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press.

The scales and inventories mentioned in this action, and others similar to them, can be used by a teacher of speech to get valuable information on attitudes and experiences of his pupils which have a bearing on their speech skill and improvement. Of course, good judgment must be exercised in interpreting the scores yielded by such instruments. They should not be regarded as infallible indexes, but rather as clues. Judgment must also be exercised on the question of whether or not a pupil's score should be revealed to him.

SPEECH IMPROVEMENT

Rating scales and inventories have been used in studies of speech improvement. They are given at the beginning and end of a period of training, and the average difference is used as an index of improvement. While these instruments serve this purpose reasonably well when *groups* of pupils are being studied, it does not necessarily follow that they can be similarly used to get improvement scores for *individual* pupils. As indicated at the beginning, the reliability requirements for group measurement and individual measurement are different. We do not feel that ratings and inventory scores should be used as indexes of individual speech improvement until their reliability when so employed has been studied and demonstrated.

SPEECH CONTENTS

Considerable emphasis is usually placed on the ratings given to contestants by "expert" judges in interscholastic competition—debate, drama, oratory, extemporaneous speaking, interpretative reading, discussion, and declamation. Debates are judged, with the decision being awarded to the team doing the better debating, and sometimes ratings are also given to the individual speakers, either on a general effectiveness scale or on scales listing several components of debating such as use of evidence and reasoning, skill in rebuttal, presentation, *etc.* Play casts or pupils in individual speaking events may be ranked in order of excellence, or may be placed in some descriptive category—superior, excellent, good, *etc.*

The critical opinions of a person of good taste and judgment experienced in thoughtfully evaluating speaking activities should have real value for pupils who participate in contests. But the benefits are sometimes vitiated by the unrealistic attitude taken toward the judge by pupils or by their teachers. Any speech, regardless of type, presents any auditor with a great variety of stimuli. It is to be expected that individual judges will differ from each other with respect to the ranks they assign to pupils participating in a speech contest. The low order of agreement among judges has been demonstrated in a published study involving a good many cases.¹¹ There is also evidence, from another source, that

¹¹ Knower, Franklin, "A Study of Rank-Order Methods of Evaluating Performances in Speech Contents," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1940, 24: 633-644.

judges are not entirely consistent in assigning ranks to speeches which they hear more than once.¹² It is possible, of course, to increase the stability or representativeness of contest rankings by using three or more judges. But the single-judge system is convenient and has educational value, especially when the critic is given an opportunity to talk with the contestants about their work. So it is probably here to stay.

Recognition by teachers and pupils of the nature of speaking—of the fact that it contains a large number of variables which may legitimately influence the judge—should increase measurably the value of contest participation. It should enable pupils to be somewhat more philosophical and realistic about the outcomes, enable them to accept the ratings for what they actually represent—the judgments of *one* person of good taste and good judgment—and to attend reflectively the comments he makes on their performances.

¹² Drushal, J. G., "An Objective Analysis of Two Techniques of Teaching Delivery in Public Speaking," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 1939, 25: 561-569.

Avoiding Abuses in Speech Activities

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OF all the speech activities, interscholastic and intercollegiate debate is, no doubt, from the standpoint of numbers participating, the most popular. In "A Study of Attitude Toward Debate" now being completed, I find that our secondary-school and college administrators react in quite contrary ways with regard to the values of interscholastic and intercollegiate debate. A very few typical quotes gathered from the replies to this study will readily indicate the widely divergent points of view held by our school and college administrators. For example, scores have replied as follows:

I know of no training, for those who show an interest, equal to debate training.

I think debate is excellent training. Competition is the lifeblood of democracy. Debate is intellectual competition.

The preparation for a debate, i.e., analysis of question, finding and evaluating evidence, analyzing arguments, and organization of them, is perhaps the single most valuable experience of my life.

Others, however, reacted quite differently. For instance, witness such statements as these:

Too often not students' own efforts. Too much attention paid to decisions.

Too much attention to technical skills—not enough to clarification and solution of problems. Too much emphasis on the contest factor.

Attitude of students and coaches in general needs to change. Attention is focused on winning. Too many tournaments—not enough evaluation by coaches. Also, in many tournaments, students have set ideas—not taken as an educational exercise.

After reading scores of such divergent points of view as expressed above, the reader is impressed with the fact that one of two or three things has occurred. Either the one group of administrators does not recognize abuses when it sees or hears them, or the other group imagines them when they are really non-existent, or else these two groups are talking about two different things. There is no doubt in my mind, but that it is the latter. Obviously, no single debate is either a perfect contest or a perfect educational exercise. However, I think it is safe to say that the one group has experienced debate as it can and should be—with few, if any, of the so-called abuses, while the other has found debate characterized by some or even many abuses.

The point is: debate is no different from so many other activities of life. It can be good and it can be bad; but it does not follow, therefore, that since some debate is bad, all debate is bad; or that since some debate is bad, there should be less debate or no debate at all; rather, since so many of our administrators have apparently experienced good debating and are so thoroughly enthusiastic about it as an educational device, as well as being splendid training for active citizenship in a democracy, it would seem that those administrators who have not found these values to exist in debate should eagerly search for the reasons, so that they, too, in the future might find their pupils reaping the rich rewards of debate well done about which so many other administrators have spoken in such glowing terms.

It is, of course, with those in this latter group, and with the quality of debating which they claim to have been their experience, that we are herein primarily concerned. It is our purpose to make certain suggestions to both the coaches and the administrators, so that most, if not all, of the abuses in debate might be eliminated; so that there will be more debate—not less debate; and so that all debate will be good debate.

First, a few words to the coaches. Just as an administrator should not condemn all debate because some debate is bad, likewise a coach should not defend all debate because some debate, or even most debate, is good. No coach should give the impression that he wishes to perpetuate the institution of debate—good, bad, or otherwise. Rather, the coaches should be the first to insist that the abuses which do exist be eliminated as soon as possible.

A tremendously big step in the right direction would be the setting up of a committee or committees on a national, regional, and/or state level, not for the purpose of legislating uniformity in debate practices, but rather to formulate a code of ethics, to establish a set of standards, and to develop an educational philosophy of debate acceptable to all well-intentioned debate coaches and school administrators alike.

Such a committee or committees could, with the right amount of wisdom, expose that small minority of debaters, coaches, and schools, who, as a result

of using, or permitting the use of, certain mal-practice, such as trickery and deceit, manufactured evidence, as well as dishonest and insincere speaking, give debate a reputation which in most instances it certainly does not deserve. Similarly, much progress would result by making it abundantly clear that it is not the prerogative of the debate coach to tell his debaters what to think, but how to think; that those few coaches who insist on writing the speeches, dictating the team's case, or even arbitrarily assigning debaters to sides regardless of the debater's wishes and/or convictions are not in good standing with the committee or their colleagues in the field of debate. These same few must be made to realize that there will, in the future, be a greater penalty than simply the loss of another debate for those who merely memorize quotes from debate handbooks and who have not learned that debate requires a tremendous amount of individual and team research in order to discover the necessary evidence in support of a given proposition and that this evidence, together with the debater's reasoning, must be applied to the problem at hand, logically.

Obviously, it will be easier to attain certain of our goals than others. To substitute the more interesting style of cross-examination debating for the orthodox style, to eliminate the so-called rigmarole of debate and the artificial, emotionalized, flowery style, which too frequently seems to be a part of debate, and to which many have rightly voiced their objections, should be the easiest of our tasks, if only some group will put forth the necessary concerted effort in this direction.

Finally, our committee, or committees, should aid our coaches in spreading a more wholesome philosophy of debate. The criteria for excellence should be clarified. Not that we should start emphasizing the losing of debates, to be sure, but, nonetheless, it is time that certain criteria other than the winning of debates take precedence. Not, who won? or how many tourneys have you attended? but rather what style of debate do you use? how large was the audience? how many participated in the season's program? and how much improvement did your debaters show during the year? These are the questions, and others like them, that must be given added weight if we are to develop and maintain an acceptable educational philosophy of debate.

For our administrators, I would sincerely urge their co-operation and their help, for they, themselves, are in a position to do much for the cause of good debate. I would suggest that they approach the problem of employing a debate coach just as they would that of employing a teacher in mathematics, or chemistry, or any other subject matter field. Debate, like all other courses, if it is worth doing at all, is worth doing well. However, no administrator has the right to expect it to be well done unless the individual employed to do the job has the proper training, experience, background, and aptitude for this particular type of work. If the administrator simply assigns the newest staff mem-

ber, or the teacher with a conveniently free period, or the teacher with least resistance to the task of coaching debate, almost anything may result. What does result will probably bear little resemblance to debate as it can and should be conducted. In instances such as these—and they are far too frequent—the fault certainly does not lie with debate! Likewise, if an administrator is sincerely interested in debate being conducted on an elevated, dignified, ethical plane, if he is concerned about the growth and development of character on the part of the participants, then he must necessarily first concern himself with the employing of a person of character to be placed in such a responsible position of guidance.

Furthermore, administrators should recognize debate for what it really is, not only an extracurricular activity, as it is most frequently thought of, but also as an academic course in every sense of the word—a course which demands an abundance of time, effort, patience, and skill; a course which calls for a tremendous amount of study, investigation, and research, as well as the ability to analyze, to organize, and to present in a clear, logical, interesting, and persuasive manner the body of factual materials thus discovered and assembled. (What other course fulfills a more important function in the educational process?) The very least that could be done, it would seem, would be to dignify debate by assigning academic credit to it, to reimburse the teacher or coach of debate on the same basis that a teacher of any other academic discipline is reimbursed, and to count the time as a part of the teaching load.

Finally, our administrators, themselves, must stop putting a premium on trophies. They must manifest less interest in wins and losses and start commending their teachers and coaches on the basis of the amount of interest developed, the spread of the participation, the growth and development of character and personality, the increase in the capacity to think clearly, coherently, logically, and the development of speaking ability. Certainly, by comparison, these are the more worthy ends.

While I have confined my above remarks primarily to debate, much of what has been said, however, applies equally as well to most all speech activities, such as oratory, extempore speaking, discussion, radio speaking, and oral reading—to name perhaps only the more popular ones today. All of these are wholesome and worth-while activities; most of them are vitally important in industry, in government, in international relations, and in the business of building an effective and successful democratic society. Neither as coaches, nor as administrators, can we afford to neglect these important areas of endeavor. They must not be abandoned simply because certain abuses have crept into the picture. But rather, coaches and administrators, by working together, can and should eliminate the abuses where they do exist and, thereby, enable these activities to serve us more significantly and more fruitfully, in the educational process, than ever before.

CHAPTER XIV

THE ADMINISTRATOR HAS RESPONSIBILITIES
FOR THE SPEECH PROGRAM

The Principal and the Selection of a Speech Teacher

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CASEY Jones was a good-looking, pure-bred Holstein, but she produced only two tubs of butter a year. Vickery Vale Beechwood was a good-looking, pure-bred Holstein, but she yielded twenty tubs of butter a year. Both cows had impressive pedigrees, but from the standpoint of a cow-purchaser the pedigree is important only in its relation to the yield.

Although one would rebel against carrying the analogy to a ridiculous conclusion, at least one factor in the analogy is apt in its relation to the topic under consideration: from the standpoint of a principal who is looking for a speech teacher, the "pedigree" of the prospective teacher is important only in its relation to the "yield." Not that one should decry the pedigree. Far from it. But in too many instances, it seems, we are prone to give undue importance to the imposing letters behind an individual's name, and we forget that we should look also for another important letter: T, for "Teacher."

If it may be assumed that both the pedigree and the yield are important, upon that assumption let us try to answer the question: What should the principal look for in selecting a speech teacher? There are two phases in the answer: the preparation for the interview, and the interview itself.

THE PREPARATION FOR THE INTERVIEW

In preparation for an interview with a candidate, the principal should investigate the scholarship of the candidate, not just in the speech courses but in all courses. Grades are not the only indicator of ability, but they help make up the total picture the principal should obtain. They are a part of the pedigree.

Second, the principal should investigate the candidate's participation in extra-curricular speech activities and in general school activities. Such activities not only help prepare the candidate to participate in the speech and other activities of the high school or elementary school, but they also may give a hint as to the candidate's interests, his well-roundedness, his leadership.

Third, the principal should investigate the candidate's practice teaching experience and success. At this point, I realize that opposition may be heard. May

I state that I was "raised" in the liberal arts tradition, that I have had teaching experience in two liberal arts colleges. But after twenty years in a college whose primary job is teacher training—twenty years in which I have served as teacher, department head, and now as dean—I am convinced that in most teacher training programs, regardless of the type of school, there is too often a great, unbridged gap between the professional and the academic training of the teacher and that the left hand is ignorant of the right hand and *vice versa*. I am also convinced that the only place where the professional and the academic education of the student is likely to be integrated is in practice teaching or student teaching in which the student, under careful, sympathetic supervision, actually applies his previous preparation for teaching.

Where else, except from a supervisor, would a principal obtain answers to the following pertinent questions? Does the candidate get along well with his pupils, with other teachers, and with the school administration? Do the pupils respect his knowledge of the subject matter? Are his methods of presenting materials successful? Does he create in his pupils a feeling of need and a desire to learn? Does he show knowledge and imagination in planning his class work, his extracurricular responsibilities? Is he subject matter centered, pupil centered, or does he have a proper appreciation of both these phases of the classroom? Does he indicate interest in his work and in the pupil? Can he maintain adequate discipline in the classroom? Does he have a sense of humor or does he carry the world on his shoulders? Does he take himself too seriously? Would he permit general laughter in his class if the occasion warranted, and would he enter into that laughter?

Are his classes informal enough to stimulate general discussion and yet disciplined enough to stay within proper bounds? Has he promoted knowledge of, and proficiency in, speech in his classroom? These and literally dozens of similar questions, many of them overlapping, should occur to the principal. Where can the principal obtain specific answers *which are based on evidence instead of optimistic intuition* except from people who have seen the candidate under some kind of teaching conditions? As an employing principal, I should insist on knowing what the candidate's "yield" had been in so far as it can be determined. I know of no better place to get such information than from a supervisor of student teaching.

THE INTERVIEW

After looking at the pedigree and yield of the candidate's scholastic record, after investigating the candidate's record in extracurricular activities, and after talking face-to-face with the candidate's supervisor, the principal should be ready for the interview with the candidate. What should the principal look for during the interview?

First, the principal should pay careful attention to the language ability shown by the candidate. This ability should include voice, choice of words, sentence structure, grammatical accuracy, and so on. Certainly it goes without saying that a speech teacher should be expected to express himself fluently and accurately.

Second, the principal should give attention to the appearance of the candidate. Is he carefully dressed? Every teacher should be expected to be adequate in the matter of dress, but in my opinion careful dress is a must for speech teachers. Closely related, perhaps, is poise. Does the candidate give the impression that he can carry himself well in the company of his peers? Does he give the impression that he speaks with authority? Does he have mannerisms that might distract or annoy? There are at least two reasons for insisting on satisfactory appearance: first, there is a relation between appearance, we believe, and effectiveness of communication; second, a teacher is always a part of the "window-dressing" of the school system he represents, and the impression he creates by his appearance is a factor in the reaction of the public toward the school and its administration. In other words, a well-dressed, well-poised teacher is a potent factor in good public relations.

Third, what does the candidate read when he doesn't have to read? To what extent is he familiar with speech periodicals, *etc.*? The answer to this question may indicate the general interests of the candidate and the extent of his desire for professional growth. It could indicate whether the candidate is seeking a position merely as a stop-gap while he is preparing for or seeking a non-teaching position, whether he is ready to stop growing when he obtains a job, or whether he is professionally minded and expects to continue to grow in the profession. It might indicate whether he is interested in pupil development rather than in merely projecting himself.

Fourth, does the candidate have clearly formulated objectives regarding the teaching of speech and are they in agreement with the school's educational objectives? If it is assumed that the principal has a clear concept of the type of speech program needed as an integral part of the total school program, he should ascertain that the speech philosophy of the candidate will contribute to building a good speech program and will aid the school in attaining its educational objectives.

Fifth, what are the candidate's future educational plans? Does he expect to continue his preparation for teaching by additional study, or is he satisfied that possession of a bachelor's degree and a twenty-five to forty-hour major in speech gives him all the answers?

Sixth, is the candidate affiliated with a church and what are his church interests? Is someone asking what this factor has to do with teaching speech? Directly, it has nothing to do with teaching speech. However, it may have a con-

siderable deal to do with teaching. A teacher is more than a classroom fixture. He is a leader of youth. He is a part of the public relations program of the school system. Looked at from almost any standpoint, the teacher who recognizes his responsibility to his God generally exercises a noble influence on his pupil and in his community, an influence for which neither he, his pupils, his community, nor his principal will ever have to apologize.

It was not expected, surely, that this treatment, or any treatment, of the topic would be exhaustive. Any reader doubtless would add items of his own, items which might be conditioned by the circumstances in the locality where his school is located, items which he might deem more important than some listed above. Be that as it may, if I were a principal looking for a speech teacher, I should be happy with one who ranked high in the items listed.

The High School Speech Program Serves the Public Relations of the School

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MANY definitions have been offered for "public relations," but perhaps most pupils would agree with the statement of Harlow and Black that "public relations is an art and a science which deals with the difficult problem of how an individual or an institution can get along satisfactorily with other people and institutions."¹ High-school administrators have become increasingly aware of the necessity and virtues of keeping local citizens informed of school activities, of serving their communities in every feasible way, and of making the physical facilities of the school available for constructive use. School visitation programs, parent-teacher organizations, band mothers, football fathers, guest lecturers, community kitchen enterprises, and innumerable similar movements have long enjoyed the active support of the far-sighted school administrator. He has been forced to realize that, while unquestionably his school does operate in the public interest, this factor alone is often not enough to develop favorable public opinion. He has learned that planned promotion of the merits of the institution is an important phase of his work; he must engage in public relations.

The principal will find that his speech teacher can be a most significant factor in his public relations program. At least ten concrete suggestions toward that end may be outlined. These are presented as techniques that the teacher may initiate and develop, but in every instance it should be emphasized that the administrator must have a strong voice in their planning and execution.

¹ Harlow, Rex F., and Black, Marvin M., *Practical Public Relations*. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1947. P. 10.

1. The speech teacher must realize that his public relations program should be initiated at the pupil level. In many cases, courses in speech, drama, and radio are elective, as is participation in the extracurricular work of the department. To secure pupil interest and parental support, the speech teacher must appreciate that his every personal meeting with a pupil or a parent is, in a very real sense, a public relations contact—one that may or may not aid him and his administrator to maintain and build a strong speech program.

2. He should appreciate the fact that full and complete co-operation with his administrators and his colleagues—in every type of school activity in which pupils of speech, drama, and radio can be helpful—is good public relations.

3. He should be aware of the virtues of good press coverage for all the activities of his department. If the school has a definite policy regarding news releases to the local press, the speech man should be thoroughly cognizant of those practices. In a great majority of cases, however, the teacher is permitted to report news items directly to the local press. Most newsmen treat high-school releases with special consideration and are aware that their reading public is interested and proud of the accomplishments of these young people. Every special attainment of pupils in speech should be reported to the press. Many times the newspaper photographer can be induced to practice his art, and one picture often has greater publicity values than several news stories. The instructor often finds it advantageous to suggest topics for the photographer. Pictures should not be limited to poses of the leads. Intimate photos of the crew engaged in set construction or the cast during costume-fitting or make-up have considerable appeal. It must be emphasized that in these releases the canny speech instructor will play up the achievements of his pupils and be content with a minimum emphasis of his own possible contributions.

4. He should strive to develop an outstanding high-school theatre. A community can be quickly "educated" to feel a tremendous pride in superior dramatic productions by teenagers. The press can play a significant part in this development. All too often the newspapers fail to cover high-school drama or turn the assignment over to an assistant society editor to whom "all the children were just grand." Many drama teachers have found it advantageous to discuss this problem with the local editors and have secured the direct assistance of a reporter with special interest in drama. This aids in play production and usually results in a review of the performance that has at least a degree of objectivity.

5. When he has a sufficient number of talented pupils at his disposal, the speech teacher should organize a speakers' bureau, publicize its creation, and see to it that proper engagements are secured. Perhaps the first year the bureau might offer the following services: from five to ten short speeches on topics especially suited to pupil speakers; three short programs of interpretative reading; a thirty-

minute discussion or debate on the current debate question; two humorous, non-royalty one-act plays that may be presented without scenery. A description of these offerings can be mimeographed and sent to local churches, schools, and organizations. There is usually no fee for these programs and they invariably prove to be a very popular community service. Training of the pupils involved can largely be accomplished during classroom time, but, even if additional hours are involved, the speech teacher and the administrator will find that the rewards more than compensate for the hard work.

6. He should establish a close working relationship with the luncheon clubs of the city. These men invariably have a deep and sympathetic interest in high-school students and are anxious to promote their welfare in any way possible. The writer knows of a small city wherein one club awards a trophy to the year's outstanding debater; another club devotes a spring meeting to hearing the three best high-school extemporaneous speakers, and, thereafter, awards a cash prize to the judged winner; and still another club gives a partial college scholarship to the outstanding high-school actor or actress of the year. These awards, from the viewpoint of the teacher and administrator, are really incidental to the real merit of this type of activity—that of making some of the results of high-school training a tangible fact to community leaders.

7. He should cultivate the friendship of the local social clubs. Harassed program chairmen of these groups will welcome the speakers' bureau service. Some of them may desire special speakers or programs. Many of them have assistance to the especially talented as a club objective. And they, too, are usually men and women of influence whose good will is an important asset to the school.

8. He should make an effort to be of service to the religious life of the community. In addition to the bureau offerings, the speech teacher will discover that churches are often appreciative of religious plays suitable for the Christmas or Easter season. There are many appropriate one-act plays that may be readily prepared to meet this need. Their production at local churches and the publicity attendant thereto is excellent public relations.

9. He should initiate a vigorous local forensics program. It is recognized that competitive high-school forensics is currently under attack from some quarters. Nevertheless, such a program, handled with moderate wisdom, may have real public relations values. Quite aside from the benefits received by the superior pupils who will participate, and from the favorable local publicity that may appear during the season, the fact remains that forensics provide an opportunity to make the school respected throughout a wide area for the specialized talents and training of its gifted pupils. Many high schools have national reputations in forensics work, whereas their sports activities are unknown beyond the immediate area or state. In the early thirties, Wooster, Ohio, had an outstanding high-school forensics program, and the writer, visiting that city, was amazed

at the degree of community interest in the progress of these young people. That speech teacher accomplished an outstanding job of good public relations, one that can be duplicated in almost any high school.

10. The speech teacher should not neglect the media of radio and television. Commercial stations are required by Federal regulation to grant a certain amount of air time for programs of educational nature. The local station will usually welcome an opportunity to apportion some of its sustaining hours to the local high school. If the principal and speech instructor plan these programs with care and take a thoroughly rehearsed production to the studio, they will continue to be welcomed, the program will have listeners, and another phase of good public relations will have been accomplished.

The producer of a better mousetrap can wait to have customers find out through their own desires about the better trap, or he can plan a program of education or publicity to carry the story of his product to would-be buyers. The modern high-school principal knows that he has a good institution and a sound product. The speech teacher can help him inform the community, the state, and even the nation of that fact.

Evaluating the Secondary School Speech Program

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INTRODUCTION

IN EVALUATING his program of speech education, the secondary-school administrator should be most concerned with the extent to which the program is serving the pupils. He should be providing specialized training for talented pupils and for the acquisition of certain speech skills by all secondary-school pupils as well. Deserving pupils should be given an opportunity to study such aspects of speech education as dramatics, public speaking, debate, or radio broadcasting. All pupils should receive speech instruction which will help them to become more effective individuals. Such instruction should include training in group discussion, oral reading, and social skills—introducing people, carrying on conversations in various situations, and using the telephone. These are among the important speech abilities which all secondary-school pupils should possess.

The administrator also should evaluate the proficiency with which speech is being taught. In no other course is the teacher more important. The speech

teacher not only must understand his own course, but in teaching it he also must come in close contact with the personalities of his pupils. Knowledge of his subject and teaching skill are of crucial importance.

There are three principal methods whereby the secondary-school administrator can evaluate his program of speech education—inspection of school records and facilities, informal discussions with the speech teachers, and observation in speech classes. By these means the administrator should obtain an overview of his total speech program, as well as insight into the degree of proficiency with which speech classes are being taught. This article will point out some of the information that should be sought under each heading and suggest how the findings may be evaluated.

INSPECTION OF SCHOOL RECORDS

Inspection of school records for the past three or four semesters will enable the administrator to determine the extent and nature of separate, curricular speech offerings. He quickly will be able to learn what percentage of the pupil population is being served by these courses. It is difficult, however, to provide the administrator with an accurate gauge for comparing his program with a norm. The extent of the program varies widely from school to school, even in the same district. Results of research studies indicate that this variation is most closely correlated with the interest of the school administrator in speech education and the ability of speech teachers in a particular school to teach speech. In some instances this interest and ability have resulted in a required course of speech for all pupils. A large proportion of the pupils in these schools follow this requirement with additional speech electives. Such a program obviously solves the administrative problem of providing speech training for all pupils, as well as more specialized training for a smaller number. It is worth noting that some traditional administrative explanations for not evolving a more extensive speech program—it can't be included in the curriculum, college preparatory pupils do not have time to take such a course, or the pupils do not like it—do not operate in these schools.

Speech course offerings in the majority of secondary schools are considerably less extensive than the program just described. Administrators in schools with limited speech offerings should study what types of pupils are being admitted to speech classes. Many administrators apparently have given little thought to this problem and, as a result, have no screening system for helping speech classes serve those who will profit most. Student body leaders should be required to enroll in a speech course. College preparatory pupils should be urged to include speech in their programs. In contrast, however, some administrators have allowed the speech class to become a collection of school drifters and misfits. This defeats the purpose of the specialized course and poses a difficult problem for

the speech teacher, who should be working with the most talented, reliable, and deserving pupils in school. It also works an injustice on the potential leaders of tomorrow, who need to be trained in speech and who often are excellent speech pupils if encouraged.

The administrator who includes only a small number of speech classes in the curriculum is faced with the problem of providing speech training for all pupils. Some administrators shrug this problem off with the statement that every teacher is a teacher of speech. Fortunately, such opinions are in the minority. Other administrators explain that speech is taught in conjunction with another course. It is true that some speech training can be given in other classes. English literature, with emphasis on oral reading, and social studies, with emphasis on discussion, probably are the most logical places for such integration. The administrator must realize, however, that, just because a course of study suggests speech activities, or because he encourages inclusion of some speech, or even because some teachers are trying to follow these plans, this in no way guarantees that such an approach is being implemented effectively. Research studies have demonstrated the difficulty of attempting to teach speech in conjunction with other courses. Speech training can be integrated with another discipline, but only by teachers well trained in both subjects. Unless the administrator is fortunate enough to have English and/or social studies teachers who have taken courses in oral interpretation, group discussion, and methods of teaching speech, he should reserve judgment on the effectiveness of this means for providing speech training in his secondary school.

The administrator also should study the speech backgrounds of teachers assigned to separate speech classes. Such teachers should be equipped with a speech major. Certainly there is no guarantee that, because a college student has majored in speech, he will be a successful speech teacher. Exceptions leap to mind, as well as instances where a teacher with little speech training has been doing an outstanding job because of a genuine interest and ability in working effectively with boys and girls. Usually, however, the teacher well trained in speech will be superior. The point already has been made that one of the main reasons why speech on occasion is not a popular or a worth-while course for secondary-school pupils is because of poor teaching. The administrator should evaluate his speech staff carefully from this standpoint.

INSPECTION OF FACILITIES

The administrator should inspect the school facilities available for his speech program and make some judgment of their adequacy. Space does not permit a detailed description of the type of room and special equipment which over the years may be secured. Such information, however, has recently been set forth in

textbooks dealing with speech education in the secondary schools.¹ The writer strongly urges the addition of one or more of these books to the professional library of the school.

DISCUSSIONS WITH SPEECH TEACHERS

After obtaining an overview of his speech program, the administrator should evaluate the proficiency with which speech courses are being taught. One method is to hold informal discussions with the speech teacher. The administrator should be interested in discovering, among other things, whether the speech teacher has a course of study. Without such an outline, the teacher may be planning only on a day-to-day basis, even in the moments between classes. It cannot be said with finality that such teaching always will be ineffective, but one may suspect that the teacher with course goals in mind and with a carefully prepared sequence of assignments designed to help achieve these goals will be a superior speech teacher.

The administrator also should discuss with each teacher his method of evaluating oral work. A poorly trained teacher probably will do little that is constructive and of value in this respect; he may only be verbalizing an explanation out of sheer necessity, or he may be solving this problem by not offering criticism. In contrast, an effective speech teacher will make meaningful comments in relation to the goals of the course, the specific assignment, and the needs and capabilities of individual pupils. He may be using class workbooks so that each pupil will have a permanent record of these criticisms. The administrator could profit from reading the chapter on evaluation, testing, and criticism in any of the previously mentioned speech education textbooks.² He subsequently may discover that his speech teachers could profit from such reading as well.

Much poor speech teaching is done while attempting to improve skills of delivery. The writer remembers watching with amazement while a high-school instructor taught posture by having pupils march around the classroom for ten minutes with textbooks on their heads. This was a regularly scheduled activity, and it is not difficult to imagine what pupils in that particular class thought of speech training. While this is an extreme example, the fact remains that the administrator should be aware of the manner in which speech delivery is being taught by his teachers. If the instructor is thinking of delivery primarily as a means of communicating information to listeners, rather than as a performance, and is teaching specific skills in conjunction with a speaking or reading

¹ Robinson, Karl. *Teaching Speech in the Secondary School*. New York: Longmans, Green and Co. 1951. Pp. 36-50.

Reid, Loren. *Teaching Speech in the High School*. Columbia, Mo.: Artcraft Press, 10 Watson Place. 1952. Pp. 282-285.

Weaver, Andrew; Borchers, Gladys; and Smith, Donald. *The Teaching of Speech*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1952. Pp. 543-551.

² See Robinson, *op. cit.*, pp. 114-150; Reid, *op. cit.*, pp. 207-217; Weaver, Borchers, and Smith, *op. cit.*, pp. 491-543.

assignment, his approach probably is sound. The administrator may wish to read further on this subject.³

Secondary-school speech teachers occasionally report that pupils have little, if anything, to talk about and that they are not motivated by speaking assignments. The reason for this state of affairs lies in large measure with the speech teacher. It need not exist if the instructor capitalizes on interests, accomplishments, and problems that are vital to pupils. A resourceful teacher will be able to tap a veritable reservoir of worth-while speech subject matter. Informal discussions will help the administrator to ascertain the degree of success that the teacher is experiencing.

OBSERVATION IN SPEECH CLASSES

No administrator can hope to make an adequate evaluation of the proficiency with which speech classes are being taught without classroom observations. Do pupils sincerely want to participate in the assignments, or are they merely going through the motions? Do they listen to one another? Is there criticism and evaluation of their work? If so, is it related to the goals of the particular assignment, or is it random and haphazard? Is it related to the needs of the particular pupil? Is it part of an over-all plan? These and other questions will occur to the administrator as he prepares to observe a speech class. The answers will give an indication of the effectiveness of the teaching.

CONCLUSION

The writer has always been impressed with the number of responsibilities that confront the secondary-school administrator. No doubt principals are also well aware of this situation! This article has outlined and perhaps added to one of these responsibilities. It has attempted to aid the administrator in making an evaluation of his program of speech education. Suggestions have been given which eventually may help the administrator to improve his program. If this comes about, the improvement will be due to the efforts of the administrator and his teachers. Happily for all concerned, secondary-school pupils will benefit most from this achievement.

³ See Robinson, *op cit.*, pp. 159-173; Reid, *op. cit.*, pp. 137-146; Weaver, Borchers, and Smith, *op. cit.*, pp. 147-186.

The Book Column

Professional Books

BALLOU, R. B. *The Individual and the State*. Boston 8: Beacon Press. 1953. 333 pp. \$4.50. This is a book for parents, for teachers, and for students of education, as well as for the thoughtful adult layman. It attempts to bring together the strongest elements of the various traditions in education of the first half of our century. It does not seek to establish any one tradition—except the tradition of free inquiry. Perhaps the loud disputes about educational methods and philosophies so current today are missing the main point. Maybe the traditionalists and the modernists ought to learn that they have more to contribute by co-operating than by calling each other names. "The genius of man," says the author, "is in his ability to learn and to communicate his learning deliberately and systematically." He suggests that it is time to re-examine the nature of human personality in the light of today's technical society, to understand how we learn, and to discover what human beings can be taught in order to live together more harmoniously.

Not since the days of Horace Mann has American education been such a perilous battlefield as it is today, with crusaders armed to the teeth storming one controversial citadel after another, each with his own aggressive purpose to fulfill or die in the attempt. Often the scene is one of the most utter confusion, with shibboleths and war-cries of all tongues filling the dusty air. The chaos and uncertainty of our time has its parallel in our schools. What we need is a synthesis. No one system, no one book or individual, can encompass all the problems of the modern world; yet we must find sense and order; we need a sound underlying philosophy and a sense of unity. This book is a step in that direction, says Professor Ulich in his Foreword.

BARUCH, D. W. *How To Live With Your Teen-ager*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1953. 277 pp. \$3.75. This book emphasizes understanding between parent and child. It shows that living *with* a teen-ager does not mean living *for* him, but should bring fruition on both sides. It shows why parents should try to understand what the child is striving for and what makes him tick; what his feelings are; and why his wishes and fantasies are so often misinterpreted. The author is not of the give-the-child-his-own-head school. She points out the importance of guidance and discipline, yet at the same time stresses that the teenager must have enough freedom to insure the growth of independence that will mark him as a mature adult. She deals frankly not only with sex information but also with the handling of sex impulses and problems bound to arise during these unsteady years. There are also chapters devoted to several special problems of handling teenagers, such as the allotting of household chores, the choice of friends, the adopted child, and "emotional" education in our schools. And in a concluding chapter, the author looks to the future of those teenagers who have had acceptance and understanding in the family group.

COREY, S. M. *Action Research To Improve School Practices*. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ. 1953. 175 pp. \$3.00. The thesis of this book is that teachers, supervisors, and administrators would make better decisions and engage in more effective practices if they, too, were able and willing to conduct research as a basis for these decisions and practices.

To help educators design and carry out their own action research studies, the author defines "action research," differentiating it both from traditional research in education

and from the method of common sense ordinarily used to solve day-to-day educational problems. He describes the action research process by analyzing experiences which teachers, supervisors, and administrators have had with it. He illustrates the variety of purposes to which action research can be adapted by including reports of actual research projects. He discusses and gives examples of the role leaders in a school system can play in creating an atmosphere favorable to experimentation by teachers and explains simple statistical procedures useful in action research.

GOMPERZ, HEINRICH. *Philosophical Studies*. Boston 20: Christopher Pub. House. 1953. 287 pp. \$7.50. The publication of this man's papers offers a significant contribution to the philosophic controversy of our time. The book edited by Daniel S. Robinson portrays a man and a symbol, and contains a collection of papers, partly left unpublished at the time of his death, and partly published in compliance with his last wishes, and are illustrative of the different facets of his intellectual activity. The autobiographical remarks reveal a self-portrait of a man of warm loyalties, wide tolerance, great intellectual integrity and dynamic personality against the background of the period in which he lived. The book is divided into three parts and has a total of eighteen chapters. Titles of the parts are: "Studies in Greek Philosophy," "Ethical Studies," and "Epistemological Essays."

GREENE, H. A.; JORGENSEN, A. N., and GERBERICH, J. R. *Measurement and Evaluation in the Elementary School*. New York 3: Longmans, Green and Co. 1953. 640 pp. \$5.00. This revised edition is planned to provide a complete and systematic handbook for anyone requiring a straight-forward and understandable discussion of all the fundamental ideas and techniques of evaluation in the classroom. Stress is placed on the crucial and practical problems of improving all types of teacher-made tests and examinations. By principle and by example, the construction, improvement, use, and interpretation of evaluative and measuring devices are treated in detail. Extensive new material is presented on the measurement of personality, performance tests, evaluative tools and techniques, and graphical representation.

KAUFFMAN, EARLE, editor. *The Conservation Yearbook*, second edition. Washington 6, D. C.: The Yearbook, 1740 K St., N. W. 1953. 321 pp. \$5.50. This is an annual directory and guide for those concerned with the conservation of renewable resources. It is an authoritative source of information on the progress of this program. It contains a chapter on conservation education giving information about the colleges (37) offering instruction in forestry and related subjects. In this volume are found up-to-date facts and figures in all fields—soil and water, forests and forests products, wildlife and fisheries, the rangelands, parks, and the wilderness. Also included are a directory of more than 500 conservation organizations; of the nation's 3,000 soil conservation districts; and of more than 5,000 names of key policy makers, planners, technicians, editors, writers, etc. Added to this is a comprehensive coverage of the conservation estate—full roster of national parks, monuments and forests, wildlife refuges and wilderness areas, and state parks and state forests.

KEARNEY, N. C. *Elementary School Objectives*. New York 22: Russell Sage Foundation, 505 Park Ave. 1953. 189 pp. \$3.00. What should children in the elementary school learn, remember, and understand? What everyday problems should they be equipped to solve? What values should they develop with regard to such things as integrity and honesty? This book of objectives has been prepared to advance agreement with these and the many other problems which face the elementary school. The report is not intended to be an overview of all aspects of elementary education. Its principal aim is to present

a revealing discussion of obtainable objectives rather than to deal with problems of curriculum or instructional methods. The study is a joint project of the Educational Testing Service of Princeton (N. J.), the U. S. Office of Education, the Department of Elementary-School Principals of the NEA, and the Russell Sage Foundation.

MILLARD, C. V., and HUGGETT, A. J. *An Introduction to Elementary Education*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1955. 377 pp. \$4.75. This text offers an orientation for the beginning student of elementary education, providing an insight into the purpose and meaning of the teaching profession. The "Content" presentation of the text blends a philosophy of education with the relationships of teacher and school to present day cultural life of the people. Designed for beginning students, those who have completed secondary courses and wish to enter elementary education, and students of superintendency, this book provides information on the strength and weakness of teaching as an occupation and on the rewards it offers. It gives very practical help in understanding certification, location of openings, and securing of positions. The book begins with an analysis of the things a teacher may encounter in the way of schools, children, contemporaries, and communities. In them offers a cultural analysis of each of these factors. After these considerations, it develops a study of the profession of teaching with equal attention to advantages and disadvantages. The last part of the volume contains informational material.

NOAR, GERTRUDE. *The Junior High School, Today and Tomorrow*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1953. 383 pp. \$4.75. The first part of the book outlines the basic needs to be fulfilled by the junior high school. The three remaining parts are devoted wholly to detailed development of specific aids and suggestions, including unit outlines, countless questions, outlines of subject-matter content, teaching techniques, and a glossary of terms. This line of approach will leave little doubt in the minds of teachers about how or where to begin when developing teaching units of their own or helping pupils to develop effective learning units. In this book the author sets a pattern for teaching procedures, including a chapter for teachers of teachers and a discussion of simple classroom routines. The materials at the end of each chapter contain selected references to books, periodicals, and pamphlets as well as listings of practical-learning activities for members of pre-service and in-service education classes.

OLSEN, E. G., editor. *The Modern Community School*. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts. 257 pp. \$2.50. Since the publication of *The Community School* in 1938 by Samuel Everett, the community approach in education has won wide acclaim. In these brief fifteen years since then (but what a deal of social change!) it has won wide acclaim. The community school concept has been both expanded and refined; community education programs are everywhere developing. Recognizing this growth, the Executive Committee of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development felt that a fresh treatment of the community school field is now needed, and that such an analysis might prove valuable as further stimulus and guide. Accordingly, the present volume was authorized with the request that it give attention to "an enlarged concept of education which involves total community planning and use of resources." Accepting that broad directive, this new Committee on the Community School now presents its report which, it trusts, reflects the widening concept, describes some current best practices, indicates certain tested procedures, and suggests a basic value-frame of reference that is educationally sound and thoroughly democratic.

This book has been designed for lay leaders—for members of boards of education, parent-teacher associations, citizens committees, community councils—as well as for

students of education, teachers, curriculum workers, and school supervisors and administrators. It emphasizes *direction*, *process*, and *procedure* even as it presents many case studies, both real and fictional. The book is divided into three parts under the following titles: "The Schools We Need," "These Schools Are Moving Ahead," and "Educating for Dynamic Democracy." It also contains an annotated bibliography of books, pamphlets, and motion pictures; and an index.

PARRISH, W. M. *Reading Aloud*, third edition. New York 10: Ronald Press Co. 1953. 580 pp. \$4.25. Most of the chapters of this revised edition have been rewritten in whole or in part, the introductory sections have been consolidated, and an entirely new chapter has been added to introduce the study of poetry. These changes are designed to improve teachability in the light of the experiences of many instructors with previous editions, and to take account of new developments in criticism and interpretation. Though modern criticism is not primarily concerned with literature as an oral art, its point of view can often be effectively applied to the study of oral interpretation.

The author believes that our first and foremost task is to teach effective expression of simple, logical meaning, whether in conversation, oral reading, or acting; that some study of voice, pronunciation, and metrics should precede the study of serious poetry, with impersonation and acting coming later; that the interpretation of a piece of literature should derive from a close analysis of the work itself, rather than from too exclusive a study of the author's life and background; that we should not attempt to interpret literature without seeking help from the many poets and critics who have written about it during the past two thousand years; and that oral reading so conceived can be a worthy cultural and humanizing discipline in itself, quite apart from its value in radio, television, and other kinds of public entertainment.

The topics arranged in accordance with this philosophy, and this organization has been found to be effective for teaching purposes. The cumulative "Plan of Study" and "Criteria of Oral Reading" have been retained for the guidance of pupil and instructor alike. They begin at the end of Chapter 2, and are continued throughout the book, being added to as the discussion of each new topic brings out fresh points to be remembered. Review questions have been placed at the end of each chapter.

SILVIUS, G. H., and CURRY, E. H. *Teaching Successfully the Industrial Arts and Vocational Subjects*. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight Pub. Co., Market and Center Sts. 1953. 357 pp. \$4.50. The topics discussed in this book were selected from 147 identified in a national field study. These are the activities of industrial education teachers as they deal with the theory, organization, and presentation of instruction. The thirty-five selected are believed to be fundamental for a basic methods course in industrial teacher education. Space allocated to the selected activities was determined from the importance rating computed for each teacher activity; this research was based on returns from 750 representative outstanding teachers throughout the United States. The techniques and methods reported have grown out of the authors' work in classroom teaching, supervision, and teacher education. Every effort has been made to report the experiences of master teachers as they perform these activities. The emphasis is on tried procedures of teaching successfully, especially with concern for pupil planning and participation in industrial arts and vocational subjects. Each unit contains functional teacher plans, discussion questions, and a bibliography.

STRAUS, ROBERT, and BACON, S. D. *Drinking in College*. New Haven, Conn.: Yale Univ. Press. 1953. 229 pp. \$4.00. This is a report of a survey conducted by the Yale Center of Alcohol Studies on the drinking customs and attitudes of college students

in the United States. From 1949 through 1951, 17,000 men and women students in 27 colleges provided information about their social background and personal habits and attitudes toward liquor. The basic facts about drinking in the United States, in college or not, have never been fully determined. Instead, conjecture and misinformation have led to stereotypes from which many sincere persons have acquired distorted impressions of drinking behavior and alcohol problems; this has been especially true in relation to drinking at college. Here is an organized body of factual knowledge to replace speculation, to provide a basis for realistic explanations of behavior, and to suggest more reasonable and realistic action by such persons as educators, college administrators, parents, religious leaders, legislators, employers, judges, physicians, public health authorities, and others who are called upon to make important decisions and provide guidance for young people. The study shows who drinks and who does not, when and where those who drink first started drinking, why and how much they drink, the influence of parents and the significance of income, religious affiliation, and ethnic background.

WOOD, M. M. *Paths of Loneliness*. New York 27: Columbia Univ. Press. 1953. 262 pp. \$3.75. The author examines today's lonely people and the causes for their aloneness with the compassionate understanding that reflects her years of experience as a leading sociologist. She places much of the blame for their predicament upon society itself and its "sundering powers." First showing how the processes of individualism, competition, segregation, and stratification act to batter down people's ability to establish lasting contact with each other, the author analyzes isolating situations encountered by such groups as the aged, the single, the unemployed, and the physically impaired. Next, she shows how people react to isolation. A fortunate few are able to harness their aloneness so that it forces them to increased creative activity, but not so the majority. Some, states the author, chase happiness through endless wandering. Others become martinets or retreat into attitudes of sullen superiority. Still others seek escape *via* liquor and barbiturates. And some, unable to find escape in any of these methods, suffer nervous breakdowns. Without offering any pat answers to the problem of isolation, the author ends her study on an affirmative note by pointing toward the direction in which its solution lies.

WOODRING, PAUL. *Let's Talk Sense About Our Schools*. New York 36: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1953. 227 pp. \$3.50. This is not a book of answers but a book for those who seek to find their own answers. It is a book of explanation and clarification in which the author sorts out and discusses the volume of criticism leveled at the public schools. He sees the bulk of this criticism falling into two major complaints: that professional educators have taken policy making away from the public, and that the philosophy of the "New Education" is unacceptable to the majority of Americans. Affirming that *what* is taught should be the responsibility of the people, but that *how* it is taught should be the province of the teachers, the author leads into an objective analysis of the influence of John Dewey on our schools. He does not worship Dewey. His conclusion is that "no longer does it point the way . . . American education in 1953 is evolving not *toward* progressive education but *past* it." And in the same way, he points out that the answer to the current dilemma lies neither in the scholasticism of the Great Books approach nor in a return to the rule of the hickory stick. New ideas and new leadership are needed. The book expresses firm opinions on such heated questions as academic freedom and legislative investigations; on the curricula of teachers' colleges and methods of teaching; on education "fundamentals"; on teachers' workshops, pay, and security; on the teacher's relation to parent and community.

Books for Pupil—Teacher Use

ABRAHAMSON, E. M., and PEZET, A. W. *Body, Mind, and Sugar*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Co. 1953. 218 pp. \$2.95. This book is about "sugar starvation" (hyperinsulinism)—a vital but little-known medical discovery which was first revealed some years ago, but which only today is coming to be understood generally by the medical profession. Medical research shows that many breakdowns of the human system are associated with hyperinsulinism. In this curious condition the body manufactures *too much* insulin, with a resultant deficiency in the amount of sugar in the blood. The opposite of diabetes, hyperinsulinism is a state of sugar starvation in which the human body is denied the sugar-fuel essential for normal, healthy life. The result invariably is a breakdown somewhere in the system, varying from late afternoon fatigue to as much as insanity, or even suicide or murder. This book tells the story of hyperinsulinism—how several physicians, working independently of each other, probed into the mysterious glandular structure of the body and discovered many key aspects of this disease. It explains every phase of hyperinsulinism and gives simple diets which have been successfully used in its treatment. In addition, the book includes many case histories which help in understanding the true nature of the disease.

ADAMS, J. D., editor. *The New Treasure Chest*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1953. 462 pp. \$4.00. This book contains prose that delighted readers of the original collection. Here are excerpts from nearly two hundred distinguished thinkers and writers. Here are the penetrating giants of the past—Montaigne, Voltaire, Sam Johnson, but here also are the modern thinkers—Whitehead and Lord Russell, Shaw and Santayana, Proust and Gide, Rilke and Schweitzer and a host of others. The excerpts are brief. Only three exceed a page and a half.

ADAMS, S. H. *The Erie Canal*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 190 pp. \$1.50. This book tells how the first important waterway in the United States was built across New York state in the early nineteenth century by the dogged efforts of thousands of workers and their leaders. It is illustrated by Leonard Vosburgh.

BAINTON, R. H. *Hunted Heretic*. Boston 8: Beacon Press. 1953. 282 pp. \$3.75. The libraries of the world today furnish no adequate biography of the great sixteenth-century heretic, Michael Servetus. This book was written to fill that gap—by the dean of scholars of the sixteenth century. Readers of *Here I Stand* and *The Reformation of the 16th Century* do not need to be reassured about the kind of job the author has done. Here is the definitive work. Michael Servetus was the representative Renaissance man: thirsty to conquer all fields of knowledge. He was a distinguished Bible scholar; theologian; geographer; physician; physiologist; and a master of ancient tongues. He was also the discoverer of the fact that the blood circulates in the lungs. His martyrdom has been the most widely discussed of all the Reformation executions. There were thousands of others—by fire, water, and the sword; but only that of Servetus assumed a symbolic quality as epitomizing both the intolerance of the age and the bigotry of early Protestantism. This study does not go deeply into the questions of religious liberty. It simply sets forth available facts in the story of Michael Servetus, his life, his works, and his death.

BAITY, E. C. *America Before Man*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1953. 224 pp. This is an account of the early days of the American continent. It is based on the findings of scientists who have studied and analyzed the evidence left in the rocks of the continent itself by geological events and successive cycles of plant and animal life. Stories of how these findings were made, and fitted together in an impressive survey of American prehistory,

form an important part of the book. Beginning with the formation of continental masses billions of years ago, the geological development of the country is traced in graphic descriptions of earth-building forces at work: coastal areas settling, mountain ranges rising, valleys and chasms being scoured out by water and ice flows. Maps, diagrams, and photographs supplement the text.

BELLAH, J. W. *The Valiant Virginians*. New York 11: Ballantine Books, 440 W. 24th St. 1953. 160 pp. 35c (pocket edition). The story of the Virginia Cavalry that fought an entire Union Army.

BERGLUND, H. J., and NICHOLAS, JR., H. L. *It's Not All In Your Mind*. Greenwich, Conn.: North Castle Books. 1953. 351 pp. \$3.95. This book explains the nature of mind-body relationships, the facts and fancies of psychoanalysis and dreams, and the nonsense content of some popular psychiatric theories. It gives the various viewpoints on each subject. The seven chapters on allergy explain what this strange disease is, and the precautions to take against it, at home and on the road. They help out the busy doctor by going into detail on all the things the allergic person can do to help himself.

BERRALL, J. S. *A History of Flower Arrangement*. New York 16: Studio-Crosswell, 432 Fourth Ave. 1953. 160 pp. (8¾" x 11") \$6.50. The author has gathered and interpreted source material on flower arrangement from many periods and countries for this book. It is an illustrated account of the uses of flowers in vases from ancient Egypt down to the present day. She places major emphasis on those aspects of the subject that have most influenced the development of contemporary flower arrangement, such as Dutch and Flemish flower painting, seventeenth- and eighteenth-century French decoration, Victorian bouquets, and the flower art of Japan. Other chapters discuss and illustrate the flower groupings of medieval days and the Renaissance, of the English people and the early American colonists and of the Chinese. Also included are prize examples of present-day work in this country, with notes on the newest trends.

The text traces the course of social events and garden development and makes note of the important flower introductions of the centuries, as these had direct bearing on the use of cut flowers in the home. Horticultural tests of the favored flowers of each period have been taken from authentic sources. The illustrations not only show flower arranging styles and actual flower vases, but also illustrate the use of flowers within homes of the past. Knowing that actual rules for arranging flowers have seldom been formulated, the author does not use the term "period arrangement"; instead, she groups her material under two headings—the bouquet art of Europe and the restrained art of the Far East—and shows how both have been adapted to present-day American taste.

BIEMILLER, C. L. *The Magic Ball from Mars*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1953. 127 pp. \$2.50. Johnny was looking for fireflies in the dusk. Suddenly there was a whooshing noise like a rushing wind, and something spinning like an enormous top loomed overhead. It was a pale blue and it blended in with the color of the night. It was as wide as the side of the barn and nearly as tall as the haymow door. There was a humming in Johnny's ears. For an instant he was afraid. Then he was not, because he knew what it was. Dad had been talking at dinner about things like this. It was a flying saucer! A man jumped out of it and handed Johnny something that felt like a marble. Later, when Dad took it to his laboratory, it turned out to be made of a substance unknown on this planet, and Johnny soon discovered that it possessed extraordinary powers. It was the magic ball that started all the adventures: the trip with Dad to Washington, where several very important men wanted to see it, and the frightening thing that happened on the way home.

BORST, EVELYNE. *The Book of Games for Boys and Girls*. New York 16: A. S. Barnes and Co. 1953. 287 pp. \$3.50. Here is a book which not only outlines the psychology and importance of play for youngsters, but also tells teachers, parents, and recreation leaders how to lead plays, even when they have to contend with limited space and little or no equipment. The author describes games for various occasions, such as holidays, as well as games which can be played under dissimilar conditions and on a wide variety of occasions. The art of developing organized play which retains spontaneity and is fun for the whole group has been outlined in this book. How the leader can best gain the co-operation of young people and how he or she can adapt games to indoors or outdoors, gymnasiums or playgrounds, celebrations or picnics is set forth.

BOYLSTON, E. R. *Creative Expression With Crayons*. Worcester, Mass.: The Davis Press. 1953. 100 pp. (paper cover, 7" x 10") \$3.95. This book presents detailed suggested aids for the elementary teacher in teaching art. In the nineteen chapters comprising the book, the author, an art supervisor, offers suggestions as to the best methods of teaching art. In this, she uses the economical and readily available crayon. Here the author presents approaches to child development. The text explains how elementary pupils think and work and gives methods for stimulation and guidance. Ideas are suggested, not for copying and particular method, but to furnish guides by which the teacher may know the kinds of art projects that young people enjoy and, thereby, stimulate them to originate others.

BRADBURY, RAY. *Fahrenheit 451*. New York 11: Ballantine Books, 440 W. 24th St. 1953. 202 pp. 35c. (pocket edition) This book contains three stories—"Fahrenheit 451," "The Playground," and "And the Rock Cried Out." This story carrying the title of the book describes a world that might evolve in four or five decades. These are stories based on vivid imagination.

BRANT, IRVING. *James Madison, Secretary of State. 1800-1809*. Indianapolis 7: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 730 N. Meridian St. 1953. 533 pp. \$6.00. This is the story of Madison's career as Jefferson's Secretary of State. It is strikingly timely for, in this 150th year of the Louisiana Purchase, new evidence uncovered by the author has rewritten its history. And amazing parallels to the political events of the present day appear in those of the early nineteenth century. Like the author's preceding three volumes, this one increases Madison's stature as a statesman, not by opinion, but by facts hitherto unknown. Up to this time, written history has shown Madison as merely carrying out the orders of his distinguished chief and devoted friend. It was not true. Again and again, when he disagreed with Jefferson originally, Madison carried the day. Modest as always, however, in personal and diplomatic correspondence he invariably referred to decisions as the President's. From American senators and European diplomats, even from the psychopathic assaults of Randolph of Roanoke, the testimony shows the steady rise of Madison within the Jefferson administration. He "entirely directs the cabinet," wrote French Minister Turreau in 1806. And he added in July 1808 that, owing to Madison's great and growing influence, "one must treat him as if he were already President." But this personal elevation of Madison does not depreciate the Jefferson administration. On the contrary, the evidence credits it with a stronger and more rational defense of American interests than has been allowed by historians who either accepted the Federalist verdict or took too little account of the lopsided distribution of power in the world.

VON BRAUN, WERNHER; WHIPPLE, F. L.; and LEY, WILLY. *Conquest of the Moon*. New York 17: Viking Press. 1953. 134 pp. \$4.50. This book is not science-fiction. It is based on fact and presented by some of the distinguished scientists and

artists. How soon will we reach the moon? How will we get there? What sort of scientists will go on the pioneer expedition? What sort of equipment will they take with them, and what will they do when they reach the bleak, barren wastelands of the lunar surface? And how will they return? This is an authoritative, scientific book to answer these questions. The space vehicles which will be used to cover 239,000 miles of space between earth and moon can be built now. So can the lunar base, the space suits, and the lunar tractors. Here is a fascinating look into the future, based on solid scientific and engineering knowledge. So vivid is the writing that the reading of the book becomes almost an experience in space travel itself. The book is edited by Cornelius Ryan.

BROWN, B. C., and ARBUTHNOT, HELEN. *The Story of England*. 1953. 52 pp. (8½" x 11") \$1.00. This colorful book with illustrations by Tenggren presents the story of England in simple words and style. The authors picture and describe the medieval court, the power of the industrial revolution, the strength of a righteous nation at war. They trace England's life pattern from the Roman invasion in 44 B. C. to the present time.

BURLING, JUDITH and A. H. *Chinese Art*. New York 16: Studio-Crowell. 1953. 384 pp. \$8.50. This is a well-illustrated and comprehensive text on every phase of Chinese art. Some of the areas covered are: collectors and collecting, with many amusing anecdotes, also guidance in starting a collection; copies and imitations, with practical tests for determining authenticity; calligraphy and painting, including the lives of the great painters and a fascinating history of China, its philosophies, religions, and the country's relations with the West; pottery and porcelain from the earliest known specimens to the present day, including export porcelains; sculpture, in wood and stone; carved ivory; the story of architecture; furniture and lacquer. Complete chapters also deal with bronzes; textiles, embroidery, costume, and carpets; jade; the art of cloisonné and painted enamel, gold, silver, jewelry, and ironwork. In addition, there is a complete survey of the subjects and symbolism commonly used in all forms of Chinese art. This includes the most popular tales in Chinese history, drama, literature, and legend.

BURNS, W. A. *A World Full of Homes*. New York 36: Whittlesey House. 1953. 121 pp. \$2.50. Knowing how people of different countries live takes us a big step forward in a better understanding of the peoples of the world. The author does this in his account of the ingenious ways that man from the earliest of times has used the raw materials he could find to shelter himself and his family from rain, snow, heat, cold, and wind. As he takes us from the Stone Age to the present day; from Europe to Africa to the South Sea Islands; from a cave to a thatched hut to the most modern home, he brings to life the fascinating history of man's progress in sheltering himself. Suggestions showing how to make models of some of the homes are included and there is a special and very amusing section on unusual homes all over the world.

BURRESS, JOHN. *Apple on a Pear Tree*. New York 17: Vanguard Press. 1953. 312 pp. \$3.50. The author has combined a fine story with great beauty of telling—a story with the warm, appealing sweep of the soft Tennessee countryside in which it takes place. Here is a novel to make you smile and laugh. What is it about? Well, let's start with Jefferson Randall Singleton, who wanted to be called Jeff. Most folks called him Little Mule—and they had reasons. But so had Jeff for behaving as he did. Three older sisters (two of romanceable age) and a thirteen-year-old brother have never been known to simplify life for a boy of eleven. An infant brother who demands his mother's attention doesn't help one whit, nor does a still new step-father (even one as kind and gentle as Ola). To complicate matters, add a move from Missouri to a new home in Tennessee, and you have some idea of what you will find as this novel begins.

CLARK, LEONARD. *The Rivers Ran East*. New York 10: Funk and Wagnalls. 1953. 366 pp. \$5.00. This is one exploration narrative written by a man to whom the conquest of the unknown is a passion. East of the Peruvian Andes lies the vast rain-forest of the Gran Pajonal, laced with white-water rivers and inhabited by savages to whom torture and death are everyday matters. In this jungle tangle, the author believed, lay the legendary Seven Cities of Cibola for which explorers had been searching since the sixteenth century. With a single companion and almost no money or equipment he plunged into the fearsome trap of the Gran Pajonal. Unlike the countless men who had lost their lives on the same quest, century after century, he came at last to the lost cities, buried in the debris of the jungle and eloquent of the pathetic aftermath of the Spanish conquest. This is no adventure-for-adventure-sake narrative. For all its absence of ballyhoo and elaborate equipment, the author's exploration discovered what may well be new species of plants and of animals and the answer to one of history's most haunting legends. An official of the Peruvian government and the American consul at Iquitos have provided introductory material testifying to the authenticity and value of the exploration. The publisher has set as one editorial goal the publishing of a series of major sagas of modern exploration, of which the first was *Lost Trails, Lost Cities*, by Colonel P. H. Fawcett. Others will appear in 1954 and 1955. Indexed.

CLEARY, BEVERLY. *Otis Spofford*. New York 16: William Morrow and Co. 1953. 191 pp. \$2.50. There was nothing Otis Spofford liked better than stirring up a little excitement, particularly at school. A less resourceful teacher than Mrs. Gitler would have found him pretty hard to take. Even Mrs. Gitler did not entirely relish the affair of the bullfight at the *fiesta* arranged for the PTA meeting. Otis was disappointed at not being the toreador, but, as the front half of the bull, he managed to steal the whole show, to the annoyance of his classmates and his teacher. It was then that Mrs. Gitler suggested that Otis might some day get his come-uppance.

CLEVELAND, C. B. *Approaching and Putting*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1953. 160 pp. \$2.95. Twelve outstanding Pros tell the author some detailed advice about golfing. They relate how one can improve a golf score especially since most golf matches are won or lost within 100 yards of the cup. Included also is a table which shows how many strokes should be taken at any given distance from the cup, ranging from a short putt to 650 yards from the pin. This table is based on a mean average of many top golfers playing in many tournaments over a period of ten years.

COHEN, I. B. *Benjamin Franklin*. Indianapolis 7: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 730 N. Meridian St. 1953. 320 pp. \$5.00. There are few individuals who come so quickly to most minds in connection with the word "American" as does Benjamin Franklin. As a result, a great many books have been written about him and a great deal of folklore has been built around him—until Franklin the legend has come to obscure, at least to some extent, Franklin the individual. Hence the present work performs a special service, for it makes peculiarly clear the particular ways in which Benjamin Franklin was characteristically American and the particular ways in which he made his unique contribution to the shaping of the American tradition.

COLE, W. S. *America First*. Madison 5: Univ. of Wisconsin Press, 811 State St. 1953. 317 pp. \$3.50. In the months preceding Pearl Harbor, the America First Committee, with at least three quarters of a million members, was the most powerful mass pressure group engaged in the struggle to keep the United States out of the war then raging in Europe. As the non-interventionist group which provided the greatest opposition to the foreign policy of the Roosevelt administration, the America First Committee faced

many charges. Members of the Committee were accused of being pro-Fascist, pro-Nazi, anti-British, anti-Semitic, anti-Roosevelt, and anti-American. Although not actually successful in defeating any piece of legislation it opposed, the America First Committee very nearly fought the Administration to a standstill in the fall of 1941. The author treats of the organization, activities, and campaigns of the Committee from its inception in 1940 to its dissolution immediately after the attack on Pearl Harbor. He investigates the charges made against America First and those which some members of the Committee made against an Administration which they believed was plunging the country into war. While his findings show that the Committee was guilty of errors in policy and judgment, the author's book shows conclusively that the group was not the "fifth column" portrayed by many writers in 1941.

CORBETT, JIM. *Jungle Lore*. New York 11: Oxford Univ. Press. 1953. 172 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of a boy who grew up in the jungle, accustoming himself to all its sights and sounds until that turbulent empire of nature became for him a familiar and friendly place. It is the author's story of his own boyhood. It is full of the vivid tales of the struggle for survival constantly being waged in every square inch of the jungle that have made the author one of the most famous writers about wild life. But humanity and nobility also play a part in his narrative. He stresses again and again that the fiercest jungle beasts are not wanton killers, that they kill only when hungry, and that most of them will not attack a man except when he molests them or in some way breaks the mysterious and complicated laws of the jungle which the author has spent a lifetime studying.

CROY, HOMER. *Our Will Rogers*. New York 16: Duell, Sloane and Pearce, 270 Madison Ave. 1953. 389 pp. \$3.75. This friendly and informal account of Will's life by a man who knew him well is the original and entertaining story of a fabulous American. The author presents the foibles and frailties, the virtues of simplicity, kindness, quick wit, and understanding that made the name of Will Rogers a synonym for American humor and a symbol of American individualism. The author's material comes from years of intimate friendship with Rogers, from the anecdotes of Arkansas and Oklahoma cronies, and from such latter-day friends as Charles A. Lindbergh, Cal Tinney, Gene Buck, and numerous other first-hand sources.

DAHL, BORGHILD. *Homecoming*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1953. 251 pp. \$3.00. The author has countless friends everywhere. She is known and admired in every part of the country and particularly in the Middle West as a writer, a teacher, a lecturer, and a woman of indomitable courage. Much of her own gallant spirit is reflected in her new novel, the story of Lyng, a high-spirited girl whose parents had migrated from Norway to Minneapolis. Lyng liked to listen to the stories of the old days in Norway, but she could not understand why they should keep her apart from her American neighbors. And Lyng had a dream; she wanted new-world freedom and opportunity for herself and for others.

DARBY, A. C. *Pull Away, Boatman*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1953. 248 pp. \$3.00. This is the story, richly flavored with pioneer tradition and Mississippi River Life, of the settlers who went through the New Madrid earthquakes of 1811, and especially of Roseanne, who found her true love and vanquished an enemy before the eventful year was over. Before the exciting climax of the story comes, many lively pioneer characters have played dramatic parts: Brother Rawson, the itinerant preacher; Aunt Hannarann, who helped cure cousin Louisa by unheard-of methods; and riverman Rucker Tanner, who went on a secret mission for Roseanne.

DAUGHERTY, JAMES. *The Landing of the Pilgrims*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 186 pp. \$1.50. Will Bradford liked excitement. He was brave, too, and, when a boy has a brave heart and a love of excitement, adventure seldom passes him by. When he grew up, Will became one of the Pilgrims and was their leading member for many years. The adventures that befell Will and the Pilgrims on their journey across the stormy Atlantic, when they landed at Provincetown, and in the early days of their settlement at Plymouth, are told in this book. The author's story and pictures carry a genuine feeling of life in the Plymouth colony. Here are real people having real adventures. At first, they suffered many discouragements and troubles, but gay and comical things often happened too, and the Pilgrims were well able to enjoy fun and a good joke. Then, there were the pleasant, happy things: the first Thanksgiving, the Pilgrims' friendships with the Indians, and the birth of Peregrine White, the first white baby to be born in New England. Across the pages move many of Plymouth's people: Captain Miles Standish, called a "little runt" by an Indian who soon regretted his words; jolly Mrs. Hopkins, the inventor of New England corn pudding; and the efficient Master Jones who captained the *Mayflower* across the Atlantic. Here, too, are the young Billingtons, easily the most mischievous boys in Plymouth.

DAVIS, C. B., editor. *Eyes of Boyhood*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1953. 347 pp. \$3.75. Here are the indestructible American boys, real and imaginary. The former include Davy Crockett, in his own account of running away from his frontier Tennessee home; Lincoln Steffens, in a Christmas episode which touches both extremes of a boy's emotion in disappointment and elation; Clarence Day, in an episode with his father. Among the immortal boys of fiction are Huck Finn, Penrod, and Jody Baxter of *The Yearling*. And there are many discoveries and rediscoveries from Pluppy Shute to Harry Leon Wilson's *The Wrong Twin*. The keynote of the book is humor, which is always the humor of the boys themselves, not that of condescending adults. And there are stories of sensitive boys, compassionately observed, from such notable contributors as Ernest Hemingway and Katherine Anne Porter.

DAVIS, MAC. *Say It Ain't So!* New York 16: Dial Press. 1953. 270 pp. \$3.00. In more than 300 hilarious stories, humorous anecdotes, gems of wit and bits of amusing legend, parable and lore, the author presents figures—famous or forgotten—who have graced (or disgraced) the world of sports. Here sports folks reveal themselves with all their foibles and hilarious shortcomings, in funny moments and ridiculous situations.

DEDMON, EMMETT. *Fabulous Chicago*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 383 pp. \$5.00. This is a social history of Chicago, from 1820 to the present day. From Beaubien, the first inn keeper, who said, "I play the fiddle like the devil and keep hotel like hell," down through the early millionaires, the plush sporting and society life, the great fire, and such picturesque figures as Potter Palmer, Carter Harrison, Mickey Finn, Mrs. Leslie Carter, the Everleigh Sisters, "Big Bill" Thompson, Ganna Walska, Al Capone, and Insull, the story sweeps along with the raciness and color of a novel. Supplementing the narrative are 129 superb illustrations, vividly portraying the ever-changing character of the fabulous city. All in all, this volume of Americana covers the almost incredible growth of a vast metropolis; this is its full-length portrait, garnished with humor and anecdotes about the great and near-great personalities who have made Chicago what it is today.

DIAMOND, FREDA. *The Story of Glass*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1953. 246 pp. \$3.75. This book is a survey of glass and the part it has played in man-

made civilization from its earliest appearance to our twentieth century. It is divided into eleven chapters. As an idea of what the book covers, comments about some of the chapters follow: "The Glass Bubble," how man learned to blow glass and the spread of glass-blowing from Egypt to Rome, then on to Venice and throughout Europe; "Glass in the New World," from the first colonial factory to the most contemporary manufacture; "Story-Telling Glass," including mosaics, medieval "stained glass" windows, and the modern use of colored glass windows; "The Glass Lentil," the absorbing history of lenses from their early use as eye spectacles to the mirror disc in the Palomar telescope; "Fibers of Glass," the development of glass wool and the rapidly expanding role of glass fibers in modern living; "Glass, the Servant of Progress," showing glass as the tool of science, industry, and better living in today's world and the world of tomorrow. Glass functional and decorative in all its many roles—and the people who have worked with it—are presented here by a noted glass designer. The book contains 48 pages of photographs.

DICK, T. L. *Tornado Jones*. Chicago 5: Wilcox and Follett Co. 1953. 286 pp. \$2.95. Tornado Jones never had a friend his own age until Paul Travis came to spend the summer in the Nebraska sandhill country. Tornado is standoffish at first; he has important work to do this summer and doesn't want any strangers snooping around. But Paul's warm friendliness breaks through Tornado's shyness, and soon the boys are real pals. Tornado is even willing to talk to Paul about the mystery concerning his background and his unusual name. Tornado tells Paul other things too—about the gold that he feels sure is buried in the canyon; about the two men who are secretly digging there; about his worries as to what will happen to him and his beloved Grandma when the dam that is under construction near his home will flood the house in which he and Gram live. They will have to go to live with gloomy Uncle Bill and Aunt Min—and Tornado cannot imagine a more dismal fate.

DUJARDIN, ROSAMOND. *Double Feature*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1953. 188 pp. \$2.50. Pam and her sister Penny, the twins of *Double Date*, had just been graduated from high school, and ahead of them loomed the problem of college. To Pam's amazement, Penny decided on a college for both of them. Before this, it had always been Pam who made up their minds, and Penny had fallen in with her plans. Now, because she wanted to be with Mike, Penny asserted herself. The author knows a great deal about the hopes and ambitions of girls of this age. Pam's problem with her "older man," Penny's devotion to Mike, the ethical question that arises in regard to trips to Cleveland from college—these are situations that many girls face. Pam faces them staunchly, and the reader watches her mature, sympathizes with her, and grows to respect her honesty and poise.

DURANT, JOHN and ALICE. *Pictorial History of American Ships*. New York 16: A. S. Barnes and Co. 1953. 320 pp. (8½" x 11") \$10.00. This is an entertaining, informal account in pictures and text of maritime America from the Indian canoe to the modern blue-ribbon liners that ply the high sea today under the American flag. The book covers everything that has anything to do with water craft—high seas and inland waters—and the men who made such crafts important. Here are many little-known, yet vital, facts about the maritime history of this country and the story of shipping on inland waters. The book covers everything from sea serpents to the Pearl Harbor disaster, from Mississippi River showboats to fishing crafts, from slavers to yacht racing, from the Panama and Erie Canals to the Navy of World War II. It is divided into the following sections: "New World Landfalls," "The Glory Day," and "Ebb Tide and Flood."

Editing the Yearbook. Nashville, Tenn.: Benson Printing Co. 1951. 128 pp. (9" x 11 $\frac{7}{8}$ ") \$3.50. Written especially as an aid to yearbook staffs for the production of an outstanding annual, this book includes general and technical information based on forty years of experience in the specialized field of printing annuals. The methods suggested herein require a minimum of time from the staff members whom, we realize, must pursue their studies in addition to turning out a creditable book within a limited period of time. Almost every conceivable problem that may confront the annual staff has been encountered and solved in the past while producing thousands of annuals ranging in size from fewer than fifty pages to five hundred pages, for many schools, colleges, and universities.

With this vast experience, comprehensive instructions to cover every phase of producing a yearbook are given. A unique system of approach to the work have been developed, a new type of dummy has been devised, and simplified methods of procedure has been introduced. This system—told in detail in this instruction book—if closely followed, will save the staff considerable time and trouble since it co-ordinates the work of the photographer, engraver, and printer. As evidence of its merits, this system has been copied in full or in part by many engravers and printers. Although the production of photographs and engravings are not a part of the printer's work, they are an integral part of producing an annual. This book of instructions, therefore, includes full details of these phases of the work.

ELLSWORTH, L. R. *Halibut Schooner.* New York 17: David McKay Co. 1953. 242 pp. \$3.00. This is the true story of the author's adventures while fishing in Alaska. After the war he wanted to stay in Alaska and, although he had never fished before, decided to ship out for a season of winter fishing. Winter fishing is tough in Alaska, and few boats go out to brave the sea, wind, and ice, but he found a hardy skipper who took him. The small sixty-foot boat, with six men, fished for black cod in the winter and halibut in the spring. He describes the hardships of a green man learning fishing under difficult conditions.

EPSTEIN, SAM and BERYL. *The First Book of Electricity.* New York 21: Franklin Watts. 1953. 69 pp. \$1.75. This is a lively, simply told explanation of electricity: what scientists think it is; how it is generated; how it comes into our homes; and what happens when it flows through our appliances. Easy home experiments with small batteries are included. Drawings, in red and black by Robin King, point up the text.

VAN EVERY, DALE. *The Trembling Earth.* New York 18: Julian Messner. 1953. 310 pp. \$3.75. In 1811, the Western frontier attracted brave, unscrupulous men like Martin Brown, who had come to a remote Missouri outpost to speculate. Martin gambled everything he had on a huge lead mine, underpaid his Indian workers and, when the Kentucky bank was about to foreclose its mortgage, found himself fighting against time.

FAIRCHILD, F. R., and SHELLY, T. J. *Understanding Our Free Economy.* New York 3: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1952. 601 pp. This is a textbook for beginners. Its sole purpose is to aid the beginner in his effort to acquire clear and dependable knowledge of the important facts and the fundamental principles of economics, to the end that he may adapt himself intelligently to his economic environment and face the economic problems of life with wise judgment and self-reliance. To smooth the path of the pupil in a new and somewhat unfamiliar field, the development of economic principles in this book is accompanied by continual reference to the practical facts of the pupil's everyday life, to the simple business processes of which he may be assumed to have some knowledge, and to the well-known facts of history. Special effort has been made to make the language and style clear and simple. Precise definitions, which are especially important

in the study of economics because so many of its terms are loosely and inconsistently used in our everyday vocabularies, are given for all technical terms as they occur in the text and are repeated in a glossary at the end of the book.

Of necessity this book deals with both facts and principles. However, effort has been made to avoid the two extremes of abstract theory and the mere cataloging of facts. Principles are useful only as they explain facts. Facts are significant and interesting only as they illustrate and demonstrate principles. This rule should guide the classroom discussion and encourage the pupil to make his own applications of economic principles to everyday facts.

At chapter ends will be found sets of exercises. These have been divided into two groups. The first, designed to check the pupil's mastery and retention of the subject matter, is composed largely of questions whose answers can be found in the chapter. The second group requires original thought and tests the pupil's ability to apply what he has learned or to bring to bear on the subject information he may have acquired from other sources. At the ends of the major subdivisions are appended lists of books and articles for reference or collateral reading, among which are frequent references to articles in current periodicals.

For purposes of orderly presentation and study the book is divided into nine major parts. Part One is designed to give the pupil a broad picture of his economic environment "the world we live in"—and a preliminary notion of economics as the science which studies man's activities in the continuous effort to obtain the material means for satisfying his wants. Then follow seven parts in which the essential field of economics is explored. Part Nine is in the nature of a synthesis. First, with the aid of the economic principles that have been learned, there is drawn an over-all picture of the free economy—what it is, how it works, and what it accomplishes. Thereafter other economic systems—especially socialism, communism, and fašcism—are examined, and the operation and results of these systems are compared with those of the free economy. Finally, the steps that America has recently taken away from the free economy are described, and the consequences of these steps are appraised.

FALK, ELSA. *Fog Island*. Chicago 5: Wilcox and Follett Co. 1953. 191 pp. \$2.75. This is an authentic story about the adventures of a Chumash Indian boy named Ulam whose people lived on one of the Santa Barbara Channel islands four hundred years ago. Though the other boys called him "the Weak One," Ulam was not weak in spirit, and, as he labored to make himself strong and to learn the things a man must know, he also learned how to make a friend of an enemy.

FEIS, HERBERT. *The China Tangle*. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 1953. 455 pp. \$6.00. This is the story of American policy in China from 1941 to 1946, of our well-intentioned plans and efforts to make China a free, united, and independent nation. Why was the result disillusionment? The author writes on a subject that still invites heated controversy. His narrative carries authority because of his access to original records, particularly those of the State Department and of individuals who participated in the events. There is new and extended information on such crucial matters as: the interplay of political and military operations in the China-India-Burma theater; our relations with Chiang Kai-shek and the dispute over Stilwell; the conflicting opinions within both the American government and American public over our China policy; the effort to bring the Chinese nationalists and communists together; the worried American diplomatic exertions at Moscow, Cairo, Teheran, Yalta, and Potsdam, and the agreements reached at these conferences; the deepening rift in Soviet-American wartime friendships

and subsequent Soviet moves in Manchuria and North China; and, finally, the sober planning for the Marshall Mission in an attempt to save a fast-disintegrating situation.

FISHER, D. C. *Vermont Tradition*. Boston 6: Little, Brown and Co. 1953. 496 pp. \$4.50. This book is about Vermont, rich in lore and legend, a state with a proud history. The author relates an interesting story about these people and their state. While she writes about Vermonters and their heritage, she is also writing about America. Here are descriptions of the ways and attitudes, the people and institutions that have come to be called the Vermont tradition. The book is an act of faith in democracy—a moving tribute to the tradition that is one with the American way of life. It is a biography of an outlook on life.

FOSTER, JOSEPH. *A Cow Is Too Much Trouble in Los Angeles*. New York 22: The American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 169 pp. 25c. (pocket edition) This is the story of a family that moved from Mexico to Los Angeles. It is built largely around Uncle Ambrose and his two nieces, Marucha and Constanze, and Jorge, his nephew. It is the story of the struggles encountered in their new country.

FRANKEL, LILLIAN and GODFREY. *101 Best Party Games for Adults*. New York 10: Sterling Pub. Co., 122 E. 25th St. 1953. 128 pp. \$2.00. Here are 101 games for home parties, club and church gatherings, picnics, vacation time, even games for car and train trips. Here are sophisticated games for married couples, along with second childhood novelties. Here are puzzlers and mental games, active (but not *too* active) games, games for bachelors and their swain, games for Aunt Matilda—games that *everyone* at a mixed party will enjoy. These games have been tested by the authors and found successful in breaking the ice, getting guests acquainted, and keeping them happy.

FRAZEE, STEVE. *The Sky Block*. New York 16: Rinehart and Co. 1953. 247 pp. \$2.75. John Buchan, Geoffrey Household, and Eric Ambler are some of the writers who have raised the brilliantly plotted chase story to new heights of entertainment. This book is in the same tradition. The brassy sky over Blue Peak had been cloudless for countless weeks. Unprecedented drought gripped the entire country. Something was wrong with the weather, seriously wrong. Platt Vencel, idly fishing his old vacation stream near Blue Peak, scarcely gave the weather a thought. Then one day he is accosted by two men who seem to be on easy terms with violence. They say "the boss" wants to see him. Vencel goes. The boss is Colonel Julius Catron of the U. S. Army. The boss is also Clement Raven of the F. B. I., and the electrical wizard, Mr. Silcott. All are united (albeit jealously) in a desperate hunt for a device they call, for lack of its real name, the *Weather-Wrecker*. Because Platt Vencel has known the Blue Peak country from boyhood, he unwittingly becomes the key figure in a fantastic adventure of intrigue and sudden death. For deep in the mountain is a hidden, ruthless enemy—an enemy whose agents seem to be everywhere.

FREEMAN, MAE and IRA. *Fun With Astronomy*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 64 pp. \$1.50. This is a book about the sky—about the sun and its planets; about comets, meteors, and the stars. Here you will actually measure the size of the sun, find out why the moon seems to change its shape, why the earth is colder in winter than in summer, and many other interesting things. And you discover all this by doing easy projects or experiments with simple materials such as candles, modeling clay, and rubber balls. Simple star charts help you to find and recognize some of the important planets, stars, and constellations. Each activity is illustrated by photographs and is described in clear, direct words that tell what to do and what the results mean. The book takes you by easy steps from our earth to the moon, then to the sun and the planets that circle

around it, and finally among the countless stars to the very depths of the wonderful universe in which we live.

GAMOW, GEORGE. *One Two Three . . . Infinity*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 320 pp. 50c. (pocket edition) This book contains interesting facts and theories of modern science in an attempt to present a general picture of the universe in its microscopic and macroscopic manifestations. The subjects herein discussed have been selected so as to survey briefly the entire field of basic scientific knowledge. The book has four parts: "Playing with Numbers," "Space, Time, and Einstein," "Microcosmos," and "Macrocosmos."

GARDNER, L. S. *Sal Fisher, Brownie Scout*. New York 21: Franklin Watts: 1953. 192 pp. \$2.00. Sal Fisher, plump, straight-haired and often clumsy, sometimes finds herself at odds with a world where, seemingly, no one else makes mistakes. A year's activities in a beginning Brownie Scout troop show Sal that other people, too, have problems, and that often she is the one who can help them. She finds the year a happy and exciting one. In fact, the really high spot comes when Sal's troop thought of a way to help the children in a hospital.

GIBBINGS, ROBERT. *Coming Down the Seine*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1953. 223 pp. \$4.50. This is a story about the Seine which flows like the manifold spirit of France. The author began the journey by paying homage to the statue of Sequana,—the ancient name for the Seine. In a grotto at the head of the river the ancient goddess stood with one of the many sources bubbling at her feet. Before starting in earnest down the watercourse, he had to visit Dijon, the gastronomic capital of France where he had a tussle with a snail, and Beaune, the center of Burgundy wine trade with its cool, damp cellars. A short way down the Seine he ran into unseasonal torrential rains and had to steer a precarious course, getting caught in tree branches, circumventing barriers, and avoiding sluice gates. In Paris he came to know the population of *clochards*, tramps who live a life as far removed from that of the streets above them as monks or nuns in their cloisters and who inhabit the quays, the ramps, and the pilastered archways underneath the bridges. And so down the entire length of the river, always stopping long enough for wonderful conversations, for observing the enchanting vagaries of life on the shores, and for relishing a chance discovery.

GIPSON, FRED. *Cowhand*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1953. 224 pp. \$2.75. The reader who had always thought of cowhands as lean and rugged souls who gaze into the rosy sunset after a day spent in lassoing bronchos, rescuing pretty girls from cattle bandits, and patting the steaming flanks of a faithful steed will find this true story of the life of a working cowboy somewhat different from the stereotype. Fat Alford, who's a very real person, has been busy with the various jobs that go with being a cowhand ever since he decided as a boy that cotton-picking was the thing he liked to do least. He was as green as they come when he started, but he had the basic abilities that go to make a good hand. So eager, in fact, was he to use his twirling rope that he had to learn the hard way that roping is only for certain cows at certain times. Time and experience taught him his job so well that he's long been one of the best in west Texas.

GOODIN, PEGGY. *The Lie*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1953. 191 pp. \$3.00. In this book the author tells a moving, turbulent story of three women held together by family ties and by a lie which, once accepted, has to be maintained. These women are: Mom, earthly and warm, who takes life as it comes and enjoys peace and comfort above anything else; Kate, who as a girl had few beaux except for one

disastrous evening when she was taken out by the most attractive boy in town; and Jen, about whom Mom says to Kate, "Jen is a nice little girl growing up like she should. Now you let her alone. Do you hear?" And always present is the lie which has become a part of their lives, which colors their feelings for each other and yet holds them together.

HAMNER, EARL, JR., *Fifty Roads to Town*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 314 pp. \$3.50. Even if Otha, an itinerant evangelist, had not come to Edensville one Saturday morning, something would have happened anyway because nothing had stirred the lonely little village in a long time. After the preacher left, nobody was ever quite the same again. The prophet of hellfire and brimstone comes across the mountain and is guided into the village by the comical Fate Bibbs. Once Otha's revival tent is pitched in an abandoned field, it immediately dominates the village and changes the destiny of the entire community.

HEISENBERG, W. *Nuclear Physics*. New York 16: Philosophical Library. 1953. 235 pp. \$4.75. This work, by one of the outstanding physicists of our time, begins with a short and interesting history of the views about atoms in antiquity and also of the development of atomic theory until the close of the nineteenth century. The next chapter is devoted to molecules and atoms. Among other things it deals with Bohr's theory, the periodic system and the extra-nuclear structure of atoms. The way is thus prepared for the main subject of the book, which includes radioactivity, the binding energy of nuclei, nuclear structure, artificially induced nuclear transmutations and with the methods of observation and of producing nuclear transmutations. The work concludes with some account of the practical applications of nuclear physics.

HEPNER, HARRY. *The Best Things in Life*. New York 11: B. C. Forbes and Sons Pub. Co. 1953. 268 pp. \$3.95. This book was written to encourage the reader to develop a perspective that will help him gain the benefits of a personal philosophy—to increase his capacity to appreciate and enjoy the world about him. The search for quality in living, whereby we seek to develop a meaningful appreciation of the age-old truths and values in human experience is a quest that never ends, but it is always satisfying. It is practicable and easy to learn because anyone can improve his perspective and educate his feelings. We all need a personal philosophy, some fundamental theme for living. We want to have some sustaining convictions in order that our personal problems may be dealt with and our living become significant to us and to others. We want to live life at its very best, in terms of the best experienced by intelligent persons everywhere. Once we discover how to appreciate the timeless values in our daily experiences, we can enjoy the best things in life. Moreover, we can gain, not as ends in themselves, but as by-products, all the possessions and social status that we need. We can rise above the trivial and the annoying. We can seek quality in our living; not quantity in the form of numbers of things that we own or years that we exist. This book is a guide to that end.

HOLBROOK, S. H. *The Age of the Moguls*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1953. 383 pp. \$5.00. Vanderbilt, Carnegie, Rockefeller, Ford, Drew, Fisk, Harri-man, DuPont, Morgan, Mellon, Insull, Gould, Frick, Schwab, Swift, Guggenheim, Hearst—these were only a few of the moguls. They changed the face of America. And they gave living reality to that great golden legend—the American dream. Most of them were self-made in the Horatio Alger tradition and those whose beginnings were blessed with wealth parlayed their inheritances many times through the same methods as their rags-to-riches compatriots: shrewdness or ruthlessness or determination or a combination

of all three. The author has written an interesting study of the days when America's great fortunes were built; when futures were unlimited; when tycoons trampled roughshod across the land.

HUMPHRIES, ROLFE, editor. *New Poems by American Poets*. New York 18: Ballantine Books, 404 Fifth Ave. 1953. 200 pp. 35c. (pocket edition) This is a collection of the best poetry written in America today, with more than 200 poems by more than 50 poets. Included are poems by W. H. Auden, Wallace Stevens, Marianne Moore, Robert Hillyer, Edmund Wilson, and many others, most of them published for the first time in this volume.

IVES, BURL. *The Burl Ives Song Book*. New York 18: Ballantine Books, 404 Fifth Ave. 1953. 286 pp. 35c. (pocket edition) This is a collection of 115 songs—the cream of Burl Ives's large repertoire, with an easy and effective piano part, complete guitar chords and guitar diagrams, short song comments, and descriptive text. There are love songs, work songs, sea chanties, historical ballads, sad songs, romantic songs, humorous songs, and dramatic songs—every mood and style in the literature of folk music. Authentically American, the songs chosen for this volume have been put together with historical perspective. They remain as fresh and exciting now as when they were first sung.

JOHNSON, G. W., and WALL, C. C. *Mount Vernon, The Story of a Shrine*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 122 pp. \$2.75. More than a million people each year visit the beautiful and stately home of George Washington, overlooking the Potomac at Mount Vernon, Virginia. Yet only a few are aware of the dramatic rescue of the mansion and of the ceaseless work and devotion that have gone into the preservation and restoration of it. Similarly, only a few know how deep-rooted and infinitely detailed Washington's interest was in his home, even during the Revolutionary years when the young nation made pressing claims upon him. Here, in the words of Gerald Johnson, is the first story, that of the rescue and reconstruction by the Mount Vernon Ladies' Association; and here, gathered by C. C. Wall, is the second story, as told in the letters and diaries of Washington himself.

JOHNSTON, M. G. *Paper Sculpture*. Worcester 8, Mass.: Davis Press. 1952. 48 plates and 48 pages of text. \$3.75. This portfolio is primarily for pupils in high schools. It is arranged progressively starting with the tools, equipment, and paper required, then the basic forms and folds, which can be used in doing paper sculpture, and, finally, a number of examples of what can be done, as well as diagrams showing some of the construction necessary to complete each one of the samples. With this material at hand a teacher would be able to guide her classes to do their own creative work, probably producing work equal to or better than that shown in the portfolio. Paper sculpture has come along by leaps and bounds since 1947. At that time it was used simply by window display people and commercial artists, and now it is coming over into the educational field. In fact, if you look at the October 1953 *NEA Journal* you will find the cover was done by paper sculpture.

JUDSON, C. I. *Theodore Roosevelt*. Chicago 5: Wilcox and Follett Co. 1953. 222 pp. (7" x 9½") \$3.50. From early childhood, love of the outdoors was one of Theodore Roosevelt's greatest enthusiasms. Even as a sickly boy, he explored the world around him, collecting specimens of animal and plant life, and finding a great joy in natural beauty. This love of nature was to remain with him through all his busy life. In time, exercise and outdoor living, together with his own great fighting spirit, gave young Theodore the vigorous strength that was one of the outstanding qualities of his adult life. His keen interest in law and government led him into politics. From member-

ship in the Twenty-First District Republican Association of New York City to the presidency was a long journey with many disappointments and defeats along the way. But, as the author writes, "in ward and city, in state and nation, Theodore Roosevelt did his best to bring honor to his country."

KAEHELE, EDNA. *Training the Family Dog*. New York 10: Lantern Press. 1953. 189 pp. \$2.50. Here are the latest and most fundamental methods of canine training, from puppy-hood to old age. Beginning with the big bug-a-boo of dog training—housebreaking—the author goes on to discuss a puppy's first lessons, feeding, diet, practical training, heeling, staying, jumping, trick training, retrieving—in short, every phase of dog training. The easy-to-follow suggestions in this book will promote better understanding between dog and owner, without which no training program can hope to be successful. Whether one lives in an apartment house, suburban home, or on a farm; whether one owns a pure bred dog or a mongrel pup, this book will give him practical up-to-the-minute advice on training his dog.

KARL, S. D., and DIEHL, B. L., editors. *The College Handbook*. Princeton, N. J.: College Entrance Examination Board, Educational Testing Service, P. O. Box 592. 1953. 397 pp. \$1.00. (paper cover) This is a book for pupils who have already decided to go to college and who are trying to narrow their choice to two or three colleges from which they will request catalogues and application forms. Contained herein are descriptions of the 154 member colleges of the College Board together with essential information about location, size, terms of admission, program of study, costs, financial assistance, and where to write for further information. All the colleges are fully accredited.

KARPOVICH, P. V. *Adventures in Artificial Respiration*. New York 7: Association Press, 291 Broadway. 1953. 319 pp. \$7.50. This is the story of the evolution of artificial respiration and resuscitation. It is based upon research commissioned by the Office of the Surgeon General, Department of the Army. The author details the development from primitive methods to modern, scientific, and humane techniques as applied to—newborn and stillborn infants; persons asphyxiated by drowning, carbon monoxide, lack of oxygen (at high altitudes, etc.), electric shock, war gases; victims of apnea; and cadavers and anesthetized persons for research purposes. The book describes in detail 117 known methods of artificial respiration; it contains 22 tables, including original tables for identification and classification of these methods (charting application of best methods for all situations); it explains how artificial respiration works in restoring life; it gives an up-to-date summary of scientific research dealing with artificial and mechanical respiration; and it contains 127 illustrations, including many contemporary prints of both the methods and their proponents.

KRAMER, DALE, and KARR, MADELINE. *Teenage Gangs*. New York 17: Henry Holt and Co. 1953. 256 pp. \$3.00. This book tells the stories of three teenage boys in New York and of the gangs they led. The stories are based upon fact; the boys are composite characters made up of information gathered from the files of social agencies and interviews with teenage gangsters. This book is tragedy and its heroes are not heroes at all; they are victims of themselves and their societies. The central characters—Sandpaper, Paro, and Money John—are gang leaders who fight and kill members of rival gangs. When the reader has finished this book he will understand the loneliness and the rejection that half coaxed, half drove these boys into their gangs. He will see the racial tensions and antipathies in a polygot city and a breeding ground for gangs. And, above all, he will be shown what can be done about bringing an end to the gangs and to the flow of criminals they send out into society.

KUGELMASS, J. A. *J. Robert Oppenheimer and the Atomic Story*. New York 18: Julian Messner. 1953. 187 pp. \$2.75. This is the exciting story of "the man who built the atomic bomb" and the dramatic incidents that led to the development of atomic energy. J. Robert Oppenheimer was born in New York City where he attended the Ethical Culture School. At the age of nine, his amazing grasp of languages and his over-all excellence as a pupil marked him as a genius destined for a brilliant future. His hobby was science. He was graduated with honors and went on to Harvard, graduating *summa cum laude* in three years, at the age of twenty. Then he sailed for England to study at Cambridge. In Germany he received his Ph.D. at the University of Gottingen and continued his studies at Leiden and Zurich. His health began to suffer and he returned to America, settling on a ranch in New Mexico.

This is a lucid explanation of atomic energy—how it works; what it is; what it means to the world—to medicine, industry, agriculture; how atomic energy has been adapted to benefit mankind. Here, too, is the story of the Institute for Advanced Study in Princeton, New Jersey, where men of genius formulate ideas that later become the blueprints of science, art, industry, and the humanities. Just as men pioneered in the Stone Age, the Iron Age, or the Steel Age, so are they now engaged in the most exciting exploration of our time.

LAIRD, CHARLTON. *West of the River*. Boston 6: Atlantic-Little Brown and Co. 1953. 307 pp. \$3.50. Here is a story of frontier life along the upper Mississippi River. The time is 1837. The fur trade is breaking up; the Indians, their fighting power destroyed, are sinking into degradation and vassalage; and the white settlers are just beginning to turn from fur trading to new enterprises. Violent, climatic events are making for the chapter in American history known as the Half-Breed Steal. Paul Boudreau, a young French-Canadian, started life as a foundling in Quebec, was educated by Jesuit priests, and through hard work and native cleverness has now established his own jackknife trading post in the northern wilderness. Here, within easy reach of several Indian tribes, Paul does so well that the powerful American Fur Company sets up its own post to squeeze him out. When Paul refuses to sell out, the fur company has his post burned to the ground. Ruined, obligated to the wily Pierre Jaloux for supplies, Paul returns to Foxtown, hoping somehow to settle his debts and begin again.

LANE, F. C. *All About the Sea*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 152 pp. \$1.95. In this book, a scientist tells of the wonders of the sea. He takes you to its meadows and gardens, explains its tides and currents, shows you its rich deposits and minerals. Landlubbers and seafaring folk alike will enjoy this book.

LATHROP, WEST. *River Circus*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 252 pp. \$2.75. Ever since the death of his father, Rush had lived in fear of his half uncle, Sam Burton, who wanted Rush's timberlands and would stop at nothing—even murder—to get them. When Rush also discovered that the life of his faithful dog Shal was in danger, he knew they must run away. From the start, life on the circus boat came up to Rush's expectations. At his first meal he met some of the unusual people on board: Madame Whipple, the captain's charming mother, who knew much more than she let on; Roscoe, the surly attendant, who had a score to even with Rush; the frightened midget, Bertie; and Effie, the jolly fat lady. And to his delight, Rush was made assistant animal trainer. But Rush's fun was short-lived. One night he woke up to find that the circus boat had been mysteriously cut loose from its towboat, and that he and the animals were hurtling down the raging, storm-shaken river—alone. What happened after that makes a thrilling climax to the story.

LAWRENCE, JOSEPHINE. *The Web of Time*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace and Co. 1953. 304 pp. \$3.50. "Every retired person should have a hobby. Why don't you collect sea shells?" This was the advice thoughtful friends gave to Munsey Wills. Munsey had no special prejudice against sea shells, he just did not want to collect them—he did not want a hobby at all. The thing that made Munsey's retirement more touchy, more dramatic even than most retirements was what had happened just a short while before to John G. Murtfels. Mr. Murtfels was a vice president of Purcells, the firm where Munsey worked, and, when he had to retire at sixty-five, he killed himself. That was when Munsey began getting advice—and it was almost too much for him—especially the sea shells. How Munsey handled his problem and his family is the substance of this novel.

LEAF, MUNRO. *History Can Be Fun*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1950. 64 pp. From the days before man knew how to write or read or talk except in grunts, his first struggle has been to supply himself with food, clothing, and a place to live. Then, after getting these things, he has directed his energy and imagination toward making life better in other ways—through religion, art, literature, great inventions, and in attempts to make the world a peaceful place in which to live. With this as his theme, the author has threaded together the most important events and movements of world history into simple dramatic narrative in which the young reader becomes an active participant in things past, and feels himself to be the promise of things to come.

LEIBERT, J. A. *The Lawgiver*. New York 16: Exposition Press. 1953. 356 pp. \$4.00. Taken from a basket floating on the Nile into the hearts of the Hebrew slaves, Moses is portrayed as a man of passions and failings in this novel of love, adventure, and devotion in Biblical times. His love of a people as well as of the more human desires of man mark him as a powerful and vital person among other familiar personages from the Bible.

LYLE, G. R., and GUINAGH, KEVIN, compilers. *I Am Happy To Present: A Book of Introductions*. New York 52: H. W. Wilson Co. 1953. 265 pp. \$3.00. Custom, etiquette, and protocol demand that a guest speaker be properly introduced upon his appearance. We have all suffered through some pretty feeble attempts to do the job. This book is designed to end them. A 17-page introduction, entitled "The Artful Introduction," answers the questions, what to say, how to say it, and how long to take. The introduction is an exposition on extempore with the admonition that the introducer is the *hors d'oeuvres*, not the *pièce de résistance*. Following their introduction, the compilers present 86 diversified model introductions selected from many sources. Prefaced by brief notes identifying the introducer, the speaker, and the occasion, it is pleasant and informative to read Will Rogers introducing Franklin Delano Roosevelt; Chauncey M. Depew introducing William Jennings Bryan; George Bernard Shaw presenting *Major Barbara*; Louis Nizer introducing Bishop Fulton J. Sheen; and Mark Twain, Luther H. Evans, and Adlai E. Stevenson in like capacity.

MACFARLAN, A. A. *Indian Adventure Trails*. New York 16: Dodd, Mead, and Co. 1953. 251 pp. \$2.75. All of the material in this book has been gathered by the author through personal experience and close association with American and Canadian Indians of the Plains, Woodland, and Northwest Coast. He says: "With these Indian friends I have stalked and observed the birds and animals which are met in these pages. At Indian campfires I have heard stirring legends and stories. 'I have tried to show how Indian boys and girls actually thought, spoke and lived, sought adventure and braved danger.'" The many line drawings are genuine, too, for the two artists, Paulette Jumeau and Gray Wolf, have made a special study of Indian customs.

MALTZ, MAXWELL. *Doctor Pygmalion*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1953. 271 pp. \$3.50. Drawn from the author's more than twenty-five years' experience in remaking faces and bodies—the young and the old, the ugly and the almost beautiful, the rich and the poor, the famous and the unknown—this autobiographical narrative has an Arabian Nights fascination in the sheer variety and strangeness of the tales it tells. Many doctors have told their stories, but here, for the first time, a practicing plastic surgeon takes the reader behind the scenes into his life and the lives of his patients.

McCRACKEN, HAROLD. *Pirate of the North*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1953. 233 pp. \$3.00. When the Indian guide left nineteen-year-old Jack Lauson at the cabin in the Quehatch Valley, he murmured a solemn warning, for there was a legendary curse on the valley. Every man who had come in search of gold or furs had met with strange misfortunes. And this lonely cabin was to be the young trapper's home for a year, a self-imposed test of his courage and endurance. As the snows fell, Jack soon learned the meaning of the Indian's prophecy. This part of the Yukon was the undisputed domain of the moose, the bear, the wolf, and chiefly of the evil wolverine. Cunning and cautious, the prowling pirate robbed traps of bait and captives and was as elusive as a shadow. When Jack, driven to fury, found a tell-tale claw in an empty trap, the wolverine became the symbol of all that he must conquer to retain his self-confidence. Fighting cold and hunger, Jack relentlessly tracked his enemy through the canyons of the Quehatch. The unexpected end of the quest brought him a new feeling of maturity.

McDOWELL, DAVID. *Robert E. Lee*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 68 pp. (8" x 11"). \$1.00. This book tells the story of Robert E. Lee's boyhood, his training at West Point, his marriage, his army life, his decision not to command the Northern Army, and his life as commander of the Southern Army. This book, in addition to text material, contains many large pictures with some in color.

McEWEN, G. D. *How To Be A Better Speller*. New York 16: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1953. 238 pp. \$3.50. The author has developed a method which has helped hundreds of his pupils in adult education classes at Western Reserve University in Cleveland. This approach is the 3-Step Method, and now, for the first time, it is available in this book. Very briefly, the 3-Step Method does these things: (1) Shows the pupil how to find his most effective learning method. (There are three basic methods.) (2) Analyzes and pins down for the pupil the types of errors he makes. (All people do not make the same errors; but all people follow a certain pattern. Most errors fall into ten distinct types.) (3) Provides a multitude of ways for fixing the correct spelling in mind. At intervals throughout the book there are tests which enable you to verify your progress and watch yourself improve.

MILLER, PERRY. *Roger Williams*. Indianapolis 7: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 730 N. Meridian St. 1953. 273 pp. \$3.00. Close by the entrance to American history stands Roger Williams. Although he has frequently been misinterpreted by those who have wanted to make of him a symbol suited to their own needs, he remains almost certainly the original prophet of religious liberty in this country. It is, therefore, peculiarly appropriate that this should be one of the first volumes in the new *Makers of the American Tradition* series—a series devoted to reappraisals of the master contributors to the shaping of the American tradition.

MILLER, R. I. *The Truth About Big-Time Football*. New York 16: William Sloane Associates. 1953. 272 pp. \$3.50. Over-emphasis on college football is nothing new. Many people know part of the story. But here is the story, told by a man who knows and loves the game. He does not hesitate to name schools, coaches, and players who have undermined football as a sporting, amateur game.

MOLTER, HARRY. *Famous American Athletes of Today*. Boston 8: L. C. Page and Co. 1953. 369 pp. \$3.50. Once again the *Famous American Athletes* series brings the newest stars in the field of sports. Old records have been broken and new, more astonishing ones made by these outstanding performers, who have carved for themselves a permanent place of honor in sports history. Sixteen outstanding players—ten baseball, two tennis, and one each of boxing, basketball, football, and golf—are included.

MONTGOMERY, MABEL. *David's Fishing Summer*. Chicago 5: Wilcox and Follett Co. 1953. 160 pp. \$2.50. Jerry knew about so many things that a city boy had no opportunity to learn. David had never dreamed that there could be so many different kinds of fish and sea food and so much to learn about the best way to get each kind. Fishing was fun and work too. And, boylike, David and Jerry had to explore. One of their trips led them to a deserted island in search of the treasure legend said was buried there. Being marooned on the island, when their boat drifted away with the tide, was an exciting adventure, but it was scary too. Another time it took Uncle Bill's quick eyes to save them from an alligator. Life was anything but dull on this seacoast farm.

MORAN, E. F. *Famous Harbors of the World*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 99 pp. (7½" x 10"). The author, a commissioner of the New York Port Authority, describes—from first-hand knowledge—the development of the greatest harbors in the world. First he tells about harbors and men, then he describes five—Liverpool, Hamburg, Sydney, Hong Kong, and New York. Illustrated with pictures and drawings.

MORAVIA, ALBERTO. *The Conformist*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 320 pp. 35c. (pocket edition) This is the story of a man who was false to his true nature. As a child, Marcello Clerici was timid, effeminate, and impetuous; but as a man, he was determined, secretive, and silent. Yet his very self-assurance was a mask to hide the fear that some day he would reveal what the years had hidden. This is the story of an Italian government official and secretly an agent of the Fascist party, who submitted eagerly to every discipline and conformed rigidly to every social convention.

MOREHOUSE, L. E., and MILLER, A. T., JR. *Physiology of Exercise*. St. Louis 3, Mo.: C. V. Mosby Co., 3207 Washington Blvd. 1953. 355 pp. \$4.75. The writing of this book was undertaken because of the authors' belief that the physical potentialities of the human body are best revealed by an analysis of the manner in which they meet the exacting requirements of exercise. Only an elementary knowledge of some of the basic principles of chemistry and physics has been assumed on the part of the reader and an attempt has been made to provide the essential physiological background which is necessary for an understanding of the response of the body to exercise. Most of the technical terms used are defined at the time of their first usage in the text, but for the convenience of the reader a glossary has been appended. No attempt has been made to include an exhaustive survey of the extensive literature on exercise physiology. Instead, the references are, for the most part, either two monographs and reviews or to original papers dealing with controversial topics or recent advances. Recent significant World War II physiological studies of fatigue, fitness, and training in addition to the normal flow of reports of research studies of the responses of the physiological systems to exercise have been incorporated into the second edition of this book. These new objective data have made possible more adequate and extensive explanations of the physiological events associated with the performance of work, sport, and other physical exercise.

MUNTHE, GUSTAF, and UEXKULL, GUDRUN. *The Story of Axel Munthe*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1953. 235 pp. \$3.75. The appeal of this book is,

at least partly, based upon the outspoken revelations of this famous Swedish doctor's life. He was both a passionate humanitarian and a cynical cosmopolite, doctor to the Royal House of Sweden, and tireless worker in the pestilential slums, a passionate lover of birds and animals, and a hater of the shams and intrigues of his fashionable Parisian practice. Descended from crusaders and courtiers of the Holy Roman Empire in an unbroken line of eleven hundred years, Axel Munthe's early passion for medicine, surgery, and psychology equipped him with the weapons of a modern crusader against cruelty and disease. At 22, after a passionate wrangle over his dissertation, he became the youngest doctor ever to be admitted to the French Academy of Medicine. As a fashionable doctor with a particular skill in handling rich women, he became father confessor and physician to their imaginary ailments—but he interrupted his own honeymoon to go on a few hours' notice to fight the cholera plague in Naples.

MURSELL, J. L. *How To Make and Break Habits*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1953. 313 pp. \$3.95. Everyone is a bundle of emotional habits, mental habits, physical habits. Life rolls along well-worn grooves of habits much like a big and complicated railway system. To change your life, to get on a new track means basically to change your habits. Why are some of us punctual, others always tardy? Some energetic, others lazy? Some extravagant, others penny-pinching? This new book explains the causes of habit patterns—and tells you how to control or change them. Traits of character, mental complexes, emotional attitudes are, fundamentally, fancy names for habits. They are acquired and, within reason, can be unlearned and replaced. Such habits as excessive smoking, drinking or eating can be controlled in the same way—by understanding the reason for them. The author's method of treating fear, anger, friendship and love also as habits, subject to learning and unlearning, is particularly helpful.

NATHAN, ADELE. *The Building of the First Transcontinental Railroad*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 190 pp. \$1.50. Everybody had been talking about railroads, but this latest news was startling. A railroad was going to be built right across our country from East to West! Some people thought that in time it might even replace the overland stagecoach! In this book the author describes the colorful men who helped build the Transcontinental. Others who appear are President Lincoln, Theodore Dehone Judah, and Leland Stanford. Here too are the Tarriers and Crocker's Pets, racing across country with their rails, and fighting the mountains, the weather, the Indians, and each other.

O'HARA, JOHN. *Appointment in Samarra*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 192 pp. 25c. (pocket edition) A story about a young couple living in a typical American city.

ORCHARD, N. E. *Study Successfully*. New York 36: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1953. 80 pp. \$1.50. Here is a practical guide to show how to get 60 effective minutes out of every study hour—in all, how to improve studying techniques in 18 very definite ways. Good reading for everyone—not only for those in school or in college, but also for people of all ages who want to study more effectively on their own.

OURSLE, FULTON, and ARMSTRONG, A. O. *The Greatest Faith Ever Known*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1953. 383 pp. \$3.95. This book completes the retelling of the Bible that Fulton Oursler began in *The Greatest Story Ever Told*, which dealt with the life of Jesus as found in the four Gospels; and carried forward in *The Greatest Book Ever Written*, which retold the Old Testament. This book is the story of the founding of Christianity and of the men who followed Jesus' steps to spread His word to the world. It retells the story of the Book of Acts and gives the setting in which

the Epistles of Paul, Peter, and James were written. And it tells the story of these three men and the magnificent work they did in spreading the teachings of Jesus.

PINKERTON, ROBERT. *The First Overland Mail*. New York 22: Random House, 1953. 185 pp. \$1.50. John Butterfield and his men pushed through the first overland delivery of mail from Missouri to California. That first trip in the fall of 1858 was a hair-raising relay race by stagecoach over miserable roads and newly-blazed trails. When that first stagecoach reached San Francisco, the town turned out to celebrate. Old John Butterfield had accomplished the impossible! His Overland Mail Company had brought letter and newspapers 2,800 miles from the East in 23 days and 23½ hours—faster than the best steamships and weeks ahead of the intermittent service through Salt Lake City. To those men and women in California, mail and news from the East were the most wonderful things in the world! Now they really felt they were in the United States!

POOLE, LYNN. *Your Trip Into Space*. New York 36: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1953. 224 pp. \$2.75. How soon can we reasonably expect to travel into space? What kind of accommodations will take us there? What are the dangers we will have to face? What do scientists say we will find when we break through into outer space? And, perhaps most important—what will be the effect of this trip on everyone on the Earth? These and many other important questions are answered in this book.

PRENTICE, SARTELL. *The Heritage of the Cathedral*. New York 17: William Morrow and Co. 1953. 331 pp. \$5.00. This book, telling the story of the evolution of occidental cathedral architecture, shows us these forces at work. It shows us how they shaped and then changed the early Christian basilica; how the problems of the Romanesque arose; and how those problems were solved in the triumphant beauty of the Gothic. Then, with the Renaissance, the form of the church returned to that paganism from which it had departed centuries before; men grew content with the creation of styles, and the structural story of the cathedral is told. The book, illustrated by more than thirty half-tones and eight diagrams, is not just for those with an interest in cathedral architecture but offers to anyone a rich experience, a new approach to the story of western civilization.

PROSSER, C. A., and SIFFERD, C. S. *Selecting An Occupation*. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight Pub. Co., 109 W. Market St. 1953. 256 pp. \$2.50. No single book can present information about every occupation or job. An attempt has been made here to present significant facts about representative types of work. This information reflects the situation during the early years of the second half of the twentieth century. Changing economic conditions may influence the rates of pay for many of these occupations; however, the relative comparisons from one type of work to another will, in all probability, remain more or less constant. Working conditions, training or education required will show substantially less change.

REYHER, FERDINAND. *David Farragut, Sailor*. Philadelphia 5: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1953. 248 pp. \$3.00. When the tiny midshipman came aboard the frigate *Essex*, he was the furious target of teasing. But an old bo'sun whispered: "Men will follow you." The almost incredible story of David Farragut, midshipman at ten, commander of a ship at twelve, makes a book full of excitement and history. David Glasgow Farragut, who was to be the first admiral of the United States Navy, was raised on the Tennessee frontier and had met Davy Crockett. A wild flatboat trip down the Mississippi River, with river pirates fighting along the way, took him to New Orleans, where, for the first time, he saw the ships that were to be his life. After the sea-minded boy's restless spell of school, he was appointed midshipman on the *Essex*, where the routine on a sailing ship before the War of 1812 comes brilliantly alive.

RICKETT, H. W., editor. *Wild Flowers of America*. New York 16: Crown Pub. 1953. 472 pp. (11 $\frac{3}{8}$ " x 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ "). \$10.00. This book is composed of two pages of introduction; a glossary of two pages; 53 pages of descriptions of the 400 flowers; four pages of a "Ready Identification Chart"; and a four-page index. These 400 flowers of North America pictured are shown actual size (one to a page) in true-to-life color. Detailed information is given as to family, geographical range, the nature of the environment in which the flowers are found, etc. The identification chart lists the flowers by their distinctive features and facilitates identification of all the flowers represented and their related species. The glossary provides explanation of botanical terms. The paintings are by Mary Vaux Walcott and Dorothy Falcon Platt.

ROOKE, DAPHNE. *Ratoons*. New York 18: Ballantine Books, 404 Fifth Ave. 1953. 252 pp. 35c. (pocket edition). A novel of South African conflict. Ratoons are the sprouts that spring from the roots left over from last year's planting of sugar cane. The author has used this as a symbol of the passage of generations on a huge sugar-cane plantation.

SCHNEIDER, HERMAN and NINA. *More Power to You*. New York 11: William R. Scott* 1953. 136 pp. \$2.50. This is the story of how man learned to master the elements and make them work for him. Once, not so long ago, people's aching muscles did all the hard work of the world. Nowadays the magic of power is everywhere around us. We have only to push a button and the power genii respond to do our bidding. What a difference this has made to every one of us!

SCHWEITZER, GERTRUDE. *The Young People*. New York 16: Thmoas Y. Crowell Co. 1953. 311 pp. \$3.50. This is a novel of two generations—of Zelda and Tony Halliday, raised in the twenties; and of their children, Ann and Jim, part of the youth of today. For the children of the twenties, growing up had been a time of revolt, a struggle to escape from established, Victorian patterns. Now in their early forties, Tony and Zelda pride themselves on being the generation that will never grow old, an attitude reflected by Zelda's vivacious sister Marcia, who looks at life with the ingenuous selfishness of a child, and Marcia's ex-husband Lex, who still trades on his schoolboy charm.

SECHRIST, E. H., and WOOLSEY, JANETTE. *New Plays for Red Letter Days*. Philadelphia 2: Macrae Smith Co. 1953. 310 pp. \$3.50. This third volume in the *Red Letter Days* series is full of play-acting fun for children in the 8 to 13 age group. The authors, with vast experience in the juvenile field, here present twenty-five completely original, non-royalty, easy-to-produce plays in which the keynote is simplicity of costume and setting. Even when no special costuming or scenery is used, if the suggestions given for direction are followed, the children will play their parts so well that these properties can easily be imagined by the audience. Like its predecessors, this collection was created to fill the increasing demand among parents, librarians, teachers, clubs, churches, and others who work with children for around-the-calendar holiday material. You will find "just the right play" for important celebrations, special weeks, days of historical significance, and such up-to-date observances as Brotherhood Week, United Nations Day, and Book Week. The scope of this collection has been further increased by the inclusion of plays which are suitable for more than one occasion. To insure adults of the assistance needed in the direction of a splendid play, general instructions and suggestions are given on production and proper selection of plays for out-of-doors, plays adaptable to marionettes or puppets, and plays for small and large groups.

SEDILLOT, RENE. *The History of the World*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 256 pp. 35c. (pocket edition).

Translated from the French by Gerard Hopkins, this book portrays the background of the great conflicts of the past. A concise history of man.

SHEED, F. J. *Society and Sanity*. New York 3: Sheed and Ward. 1953. 274 pp. \$3.00. The first part of this book discusses man as the Christian knows him to be, what he is, what the purpose of his existence is, and what principles should guide beings of that sort or that goal in their dealings with one another. The second part applies these principles to marriage and the family, the third part to society and state. It is a book of principles, not blueprints. There is no effort to describe the ideal family or draw up the constitution of the ideal state, but only to establish as clearly as may be the elements, largely forgotten elements, that husbands and wives and citizens must have in mind if they are to make anything of their tasks.

SIMON, C. M. *Johnswood*. New York 10: E. P. Dutton and Co. 1953. 249 pp. \$3.50. This book offers understanding and deep comfort to anyone who has suffered a personal loss. Its author is the widow of the distinguished poet and winner of the Pulitzer Prize Award, John Gould Fletcher. In a way, the book is a tribute to a husband who never lost his sensitivity to beauty and who enriched the life of the woman who loved him. It is also a simple expression of gratitude for years of happiness two people spent together, of devastating emptiness which follows the loss and of the reassuring discovery that a person can continue to enjoy a wealth of experience which two have shared.

SKEAPING, JOHN. *The Big Tree of Mexico*. Bloomington: Indiana Univ. Press. 1953. 234 pp. This travel book describes one of the most colorful countries in the world. It is rich with incident: the author's hazardous search for a native model in the dance-halls of Mexico City; the fireworks and feasts of the village; the beguiling folk-tales of shepherds in the mountains; the peculiar ritual by which he became *padrino* or godfather to one of the marriageable girls. Each succeeding chapter gives a picture of primitive Indian wild life and its background—a total of 15 drawings and 22 photographs.

SLAUGHTER, F. G. *Storm Haven*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co. 1953. 282 pp. \$3.50. It was 1863; no time for a man to be neutral in the South. Dr. Kit Clark, though he worked with the ambulance trains, was a neutral—a social pariah at Storm Haven, the great plantation where he was billeted. Storm Haven epitomized the aristocratic heritage that Kit had renounced when he had left Texas and become a doctor. Valerie Storm was the plantation's high-spirited and lovely young chatelaine, and her aloofness was a constant reminder that Kit was an intruder, that he was not among the heroes with Valerie's brother, Tony, or her fiancé, Jason Brent. But Kit could no more suppress his love for Valerie than he could refuse Tony's challenge for a duel. Disaster followed on disaster. Tony was murdered. His young friends, sure of Kit's guilt, sought revenge; and it was, strangely, Jason Brent who offered Kit an escape and a job as manager of his Caloosahatchee ranch in southern Florida. Kit, sensing treachery but with no alternative, accepted and was sped on his way to the tip of Florida, away from Valerie to a new life.

SPERRY, ARMSTRONG. *The Voyages of Christopher Columbus*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 186 pp. \$1.50. The whole story of the great voyage of discovery centers on the courage and vision and unquenchable spirit of this man who wouldn't be stopped even though everyone called him mad. Arguing with great men of learning; pleading his case before the King and Queen; winning the friendship of Father Perez, the powerful Pinson brothers, and Don Luis de Santangel; commanding his rough and mutinous crew; dealing with the savages—Columbus is here portrayed fighting his way to the destiny that made history.

STAFFORD, C. T. *The Ironmaster of Crimson Furnace*. New York 16: Exposition Press. 1953. 328 pp. \$3.50. This book tells of the romantic courtship of handsome Robert Spottsley, the Ironmaster, and lovely Carrabelle Shreveport; of the decline of Judson DeBruitt, Robert's rival in love and in business; of ambuscades and duels, gallantry and deceit, holocausts and happiness.

STALEY, S. C. *Physical Exercise Programs*. St. Louis 3, Mo.: C. V. Mosby Co., 3207 Washington Blvd. 1953. 292 pp. \$5.00. This book is designed to be used as a textbook in teacher education classes and leaders club groups dealing with programs in physical exercise and as a source book by practicing teachers engaged in directing classes in this type of work. It should be particularly helpful to those searching for improved methods of teaching and management, new programs, new variations of old programs, and new exercises. The book is divided into two sections. After chapter 1 surveys the field, one chapter is devoted to "Method of Conduct," dealing with principles and practices related to the conduct of all programs. The other seven chapters describe seven types of programs.

STEVENS, L. C. *Russian Assignment*. Boston 6: Atlantic-Little, Brown and Co. 1953. 584 pp. \$5.75. This book seeks to explain Russia in human, nonpolitical terms, by showing us the mind and heart of the Russian people. It lays bare the loyalties, the superstitions and the unremitting fears which dominate the lives of the Russian people today. When the author and his wife, Nell, arrived in Moscow in July, 1947, the "Hate America" campaign was rising in intensity. The movement of all diplomats was sharply curtailed and continually under observation, and there were informers in the household of every foreigner. As our naval attaché, he attended the great state functions—the 800th anniversary of Moscow, Zhdanov's funeral, the huge demonstration of the Soviet Air Fleet, Molotov's reception. But it was in his unofficial contact with ordinary people that this book reached a deeper meaning, a fuller realization.

STEVENS, LIONEL. *The Ordeal of George Meredith*. New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1953. 380 pp. \$6.00. Here is a biography of one of the chief literary figures of the Victorian era. George Meredith's life-span, stretching from 1828 to 1909, covers the entire period; he knew intimately most of the interesting people of his day, from the old Carlyle, one of his first admirers, to such contemporaries as Morris, Rossetti, Swinburne, B. V. Thomson, and many others. The book abounds in amusing and revealing anecdotes about these people. Meredith's youth and early manhood were a hard and, for the most part, unsuccessful struggle. His first books attracted little attention other than the denunciation for its impropriety which *The Ordeal of Richard Feverel* drew down upon him from press and pulpit. His first marriage, to a young woman who subsequently deserted him for another man, left scars on a sensitive nature, which never quite healed; he found himself unable to forgive the penitent young woman and refused to visit her even on her deathbed.

STOLZ, MARY. *In a Mirror*. New York 16: Harper and Brothers. 1953. 211 pp. \$2.50. The most important person in Bessie Muller's immediate life was her roommate at college, Til Carey, a lovely, charming girl with a host of young men running after her, yet not without her private problems. Then there was the new English instructor, Mr. Dunn, who was partial to nineteenth-century sentimental poetry which Bessie couldn't tolerate, but who had a loveable family that softened her feeling for him. It was her relationship with these two people that helped Bessie to see herself more objectively than she had ever been able to in the past. And once she could look at herself objectively, she was on the way to solving the major problem in her life.

STORER, J. H. *The Web of Life*. New York 10: Devin-Adair Co. 1953. 144 pp. \$3.00. In recent years—belatedly—man has come to realize that all living things—bacteria, insects, grass, birds, and mammals—fit into a pattern, that all are interrelated and that the whole depends for healthy existence on the presence of each of its parts. The study of these interrelationships—of how one living thing affects another—goes by the name of ecology. As a result of this belated realization, our museums are being rearranged into habitat groups instead of the familiar cases of stuffed specimens; our nature books are being rewritten from an ecological standpoint; our conversation organizations are using applied ecology in the field, instead of attempting to remake nature to suit man. For many years a simple elementary book that would explain to the average reader some of the fundamentals of ecology has been needed. The author has written this book to supply this need. It knows how the natural world operates, without benefit of man and his machines. It shows the natural community in action, with all its parts functioning.

STUART, JESSE. *The Beatinest Boy*. New York 36: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1953. 111 pp. \$2.25. Grandma Beverley used to say that David was the beatinest boy that ever grew up in the Valley. And David was sure that his grandmother was the smartest, most wonderful woman in the world. His Grandma never fussed and knew an awful lot of useful things like hunting possums—milking cows, and robbing bee trees. This is a story of the Kentucky mountains.

SYRETT, H. C. *Andrew Jackson*. Indianapolis 7: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 730 N. Meridian St. 1953. 298 pp. \$3.00. If one wishes to understand the distinctive contribution of Andrew Jackson to the shaping of the American tradition, one must first recognize that the essential character of this contribution lies not in the fact that Jackson was a great writer or a profound thinker but that he came at a time in our history when national politics was undergoing a decisive change and became himself the symbol, the embodiment of that change in several of its most important aspects. The author presents in this book a picture of this contribution of Andrew Jackson. He writes, "Jackson's ability to provide a type of leadership that strengthened rather than vitiated American democracy can be attributed to the skill with which he ascertained the will of the majority, his broad view of the national interest, and the extent to which his thought and policy reflected the acquisitive spirit of his times."

TEARLE, PEGGY. *Costume Jewelry*. New York: Studio Publications. 1953. 64 pp. It is a far cry from sharks' teeth to sapphires, from sea-shells to amethysts. The connecting link, as shown in the author's book, is that agreeable human predilection for display and ornament. Practically anything, from the prosaic curtain ring to the sophisticated aquamarine can be successfully embodied in homemade jewelry. Only the simplest tools and materials are needed for this fashionable and popular craft, and a professional finish can be achieved mainly with needle and thread by anyone able to sew. Concise, practical instructions are given for making an extraordinarily wide range of pieces, including metal jewelry, bracelet fobs, cabochon and bugle bead necklaces, sequin and diamanté brooches, pearl and rhinestone ear-rings, topaz and pearl chokers, and diamanté drops.

TRAVERS, ROBERT. *A Funeral for Sabella*. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, 501 Madison Ave. 1953. 192 pp. 25c. (pocket edition). This is an outspoken novel of waterfront corruption. It tells of tough longshoremen battling corrupt politicians, underworld hoodlums, and a crooked union boss in a determined struggle to protect their jobs and their lives on the waterfront of a great American city.

Volleyball. New York 16: U. S. Volleyball Association, Robert Morrison, Secretary-Treasurer, 145 E. 32nd St. 1953. 186 pp. 60c. The 1954 annual official volleyball rules and reference guide of the U. S. Volleyball Association. It includes a number of articles about volleyball and related areas, administration, and rules, both national and international.

WHITE, T. H. *Fire in the Ashes*. New York 16: William Sloane Associates. 1953. 405 pp. \$5.00. This is the story of a new Europe rising from the ashes of despair—and of America's great adventure as leader of the Western world. It is written from intimate knowledge of the persons and events described and with unswerving confidence in the free world's answer to the challenge of communism. Starting with an airman's view of Europe, the author shows how closely the geography of the Continent meshes with its history. Never—though he goes on to deal with single men, single events, single countries—do you lose this perspective. He believes that the fate of Europe depends upon developments within England, France, and Germany during the next few years. He describes these three countries—first in a general survey, then in the human terms of men who truly represent their time and place. Here is the story of the European Union; of the North Atlantic Alliance; of Russian blunders that, of themselves, stopped the surge of communism in Europe even before Stalin's death; and, now, the nature of Russia's new challenge to the world.

The Williamsburg Calendar for Engagements and Almanac for the Year 1954. Richmond, Va.: Dietz Press. 1953. 84 pp. \$1.50. This is the twelfth annual edition. On horseback and in carriages, the colonial worshipers draw up to old Bruton Parish Church in Elmo Jones' illustration on the box and cover. In five colors, pastels, the sprightly scene introduces a progressive story of Christmas in eighteenth-century Virginia: carol singing in front of the Governor's Palace and turkey-fish-squirrel-hare roasting in the great kitchen chimney; Christmas guests in authentic costume and equipages arriving at the famous houses of "Westover" and "Berkeley" on the James, the Nelson house in Yorktown, the Wythe and Ludwell-Paradise houses in Williamsburg. Authentic colonial customs are sketched in the scenes of students of the College of William and Mary, before the Wren building, raising their mugs around the bonfire, and the young men firing guns around the fire at "Carter's Grove" nearby. Raleigh Tavern welcomes its coach guests, and Pastor Minnigerode stands with hatchet watching the first Christmas tree in the land being carried into the St. George Tucker home. Because colonial gentlemen read Greek and Latin before breakfast to stimulate the appetite, the publisher has quoted little-known, but as pertinent today as they were in antiquity, sayings of some of the old masters of provocative thought. These, with the humorous and wise verses for each week, offer a rich source of club-speech material for men, women, and school and college students.

WINEBRENNER, D. K. *Jewelry Making*. Scranton 9, Pa.: International Textbook Co., 1001 Wyoming Ave. 1953. 198 pp. \$5.00. Throughout this book, emphasis is on the creative instead of rigid directions and projects, on contemporary design rather than on imitative design inspired almost entirely by patterns from nature; on the joy of free execution rather than on mere technical proficiency alone. With this book, you'll get started at once—with immediate preliminary experience in getting the feel of your material through shaping, sawing, and soldering metal. You'll learn to design by designing. There are 24 suggested approaches to design—from cribbling and doodling to modeling in papier-mâché. You will find a wide variety of tools and processes from which to choose, but the emphasis is on the simple and inexpensive. The book is flexible. The illustrated dictionary

of tools, the list of things you can make, the dictionary of processes—all these are arranged in alphabetical order for easy reference. And you can begin with any process in any order according to your present needs. You'll also find a special chapter on where to buy your supplies; a classified index broken down into design suggestions, supplies and materials, tools and equipment, descriptions of processes, and examples of projects; and a helpful list of books to help you explore other aspects of the craft. There are 1,117 items, designs, and steps in processes illustrated. Some of the items are by beginners, and some of them are by topnotch professionals.

WINWAR, FRANCES. *Napoleon and the Battle of Waterloo*. New York 22: Random House. 1953. 183 pp. \$1.50. In this book the author tells the story of Napoleon and the part he played in history. She traces his adventurous life from his birth on the island of Corsica to his last days on St. Helena. But islands were too small for a man of Napoleon's ambition and energy. He needed a stage as big as a continent. On that stage, though, there were other actors—men who challenged Napoleon's place there: the Duke of Wellington, Admiral Nelson, Marshals Bülow and Blücher. Europe shook before their struggle ended in one of the strangest battles in history.

WRIGHT, FRANK LLOYD. *The Future of Architecture*. New York 36: Horizon Press, 220 W. 42nd St. 1953. 326 pp. \$7.50. This book provides a comprehensive survey of the major statements on architecture during the past quarter century. It begins with the long, widely discussed *Conversation*, in which Mr. Wright explains his aims and contributions in architecture. In his own words he gives to the reader the issue of his masterwork which has dominated the world of architecture in the twentieth century. In it, he, illustrating with his buildings and his hands, renders his concepts of an organic architecture vividly alive. This book brings together a number of rare works originally published in separate editions—"Modern Architecture" which were his six lectures given in 1930 at Princeton, "Two Lectures on Architecture" given in 1931 at the Chicago Art Institute, and "An Organic Architecture" which were five lectures given in 1938 in London. The book is completed by two other sections—"Some Aspects of the Future of Architecture" and "The Language of an Organic Architecture." Included also are photographs of some of Mr. Wright's epoch-making buildings.

Yearbook of the United Nations, 1952. New York: United Nations. 1953. 992 pp. \$12.50. *The Yearbook* is the sixth in a series of annual volumes produced by the United Nations Department of Public Information to provide a detailed account of the work and achievements of the United Nations and its related specialized agencies. The *Yearbooks* are intended as permanent reference volumes for public officials, scholars, diplomats, teachers, writers, librarians, students, and others concerned with international affairs. The current issue of the *Yearbook* opens with a brief account of the origins and evolution of the United Nations and a review of the major events in its history from 1946 to the end of 1951. The full texts of the Charter of the United Nations and the Statute of the International Court of Justice are given; and the summaries, contained in previous issues, of the Charter provisions relating to the main organs have been replaced by references to the relevant articles of the Charter. Other matters are grouped under subject-headings covering the organization as a whole rather than dealt with separately under each of the principal organs. The substantive work of the United Nations during 1952 is treated by subject; for every major question discussed during the year, a single comprehensive survey is provided of the discussion and actions of each United Nations body concerned. The *Yearbook* is fully documented and a comprehensive index is provided. Part II of the *Yearbook*, as in previous years, contains a survey of the organization,

functions, and work of each of the specialized agencies. The previous volumes in this series, covering the year 1946-47, 1947-48, 1948-49, 1950, and 1951, are available through the authorized agents for United Nations publications.

Pamphlets for Pupil-Teacher Use

Accounting, Auditing, Cost Accounting, and Allied Subjects. Chicago 6: International Accountants Society, 209 W. Jackson Blvd. 1953. 24 pp. Free. A comprehensive outline of elementary, intermediate, and advance courses available through this correspondence school. Also available from the same source is a 24-page booklet entitled *Accounting Training*. This tells of business opportunities and how to prepare for them.

An Appraisal of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of State, United States National Commission for UNESCO. 1953. 24 pp. Free. Presents factual answers to many of the attacks which have been made against UNESCO, and assesses the strengths and weaknesses of the organization.

ASHER, R. E. *The Economics of U. S. Foreign Policy.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 16 pp. 10c. Discusses the broad objectives of the economic side of U. S. foreign policy.

Atomic Digest. London, S. W. 1, England: New World Publications, 162 St. Stephens House, Westminster. 1953. 40 pp. This is an attempt to help the layman understand the potential power for good embedded in this newly demonstrated energy. Mostly about U.S.A.

EVERY, C. E., and KIRKENDALL, L. A. *A Progress Report on the Oregon Developmental Center Project in Family Life Education.* Portland 4: E. C. Brown Trust, 220 W. Alder St. 1952. 46 pp. A description of the project and of experiences encountered during the academic year 1951-52.

BAIRD, C. R. *The Autobiography.* Pittsburgh, Kansas: Office of Publications, Kansas State Teachers College. 1953. 23 pp. The October, 1953, issue of the *Educational Leader* presents a technique for the counseling interview and the classroom. This magazine appears four times during the year—January, April, July, and October.

BRYANT, M. M., et al. *Teachers Manual for English at Work.* New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1953 Course III, 64 pp.; Course IV, 59 pp. 52c each. Aids and suggestions for teachers using this series of English textbooks in their classes.

CALIFORNIA INDUSTRIAL ARTS COMMITTEE. *Suggested Courses of Instruction in Industrial Arts.* Sacramento: California State Dept. of Education. 1953. 54 pp. An outline for suggested courses of instruction for six areas of industrial arts on the junior high-school level. Areas covered are wood, metal, electricity, handicrafts, graphic arts, and comprehensive general shop, each covering two levels—exploratory and basic.

CARNEGIE, DALE. *Making Your Home Life Happier.* New York 11: Good Reading Rack Service, 76 Ninth Ave. 1953. 16 pp. Some dos and don'ts.

A Chronology of American Railroads. Washington 6, D. C.: Association of American Railroads, Transportation Building. 1953. 12 pp. Free. A chronological presentation of the development of railroads from 1807 to present day; also includes mileage by states and by years.

COLM, GERHARD, and YOUNG, MARILYN. *Can We Afford Additional Programs for National Defense?* Washington 9, D. C.: National Planning Association, 1606 New Hampshire Ave., N. W. 1953. 64 pp. plus 15 tables. \$1.50. A

publication prepared by a Special Project Committee of the National Planning Association. Includes chapters dealing with experience from 1950 to 1953; economic implications of present programs of national security; three projections to 1956 of hypothetical additional security programs; the impact of the additional programs on production and on consumption; the inflationary effects of the additional programs and policies to control inflation.

COMMITTEE ON HOME-SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS. *The Preparation of Teachers for Home-Community Relations.* Sacramento: California State Dept. of Education. 1953. 48 pp. Brings together ideas and materials designed to increase the teacher's competence in the home-school-community relation area.

DALEY, F. M., and CAIN, L. F. *Mentally Retarded Students in California Secondary Schools.* Sacramento: California State Dept. of Education. 1953. 214 pp. A report of a study made under the direction of San Francisco State College and the California State Dept. of Education during the school year 1950-51 to obtain information about the social, economic, and educational problems and needs of mentally retarded adolescents, and to determine the extent to which their needs are being met.

DIMOND, S. E. *Citizenship for Boys and Girls.* Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1953. 40 pp. 40c. Written for elementary- and junior high-school pupils with the aim to develop an understanding of the many-sided aspects of good citizenship. Describes what citizenship means and how it can be a part of everyday living in the home, the school, and the community.

DODDS, MARYELLE. *Have Fun . . . Get Well!* New York 10: American Heart Association, 44 E. 23rd St. 1953. 39 pp. Suggestions to help patients with rheumatic fever and rheumatic heart disease and their parents make the time spent in bed a period that is mentally and spiritually constructive.

DRATZ, E. M. *Guide to Teaching About the United Nations and World Affairs.* New York 17: American Association for the United Nations, Formal Education Dept., 345 E. 46th St. 1953. 32 pp. 10c. A teacher handbook suggesting activities for elementary- and secondary-school pupils adapted to fit the interests, needs, and abilities of the pupils involved.

Driver Instruction. Sacramento: California State Dept. of Education. 1953. 103 pp. This guide for driver education and driver training is based on the experience of classroom teachers and the contributions of experts in the field. The manual is the result of suggestions offered by a large group of people. Contains pictures and detailed instructional procedures.

DULLES, J. F. *Organized Labor's Fight Against World Communism.* Washington 25, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of State. 1953. 12 pp. Free. An address by the Secretary of State given before the A. F. of L. convention in St. Louis, Mo., September 24, 1953.

DYER, H. S. *College Board Scores.* Princeton: Educational Testing Service, P. O. Box 592. 1953. 94 pp. 75c. Explains their use and interpretation; also provides simple methods of handling counseling, admissions, and placement.

Economy in School Organization. Albany 1: Univ. of the State of N. Y., State Education Dept., Room 102. 1953 (September) 20 pp. A guide for discussion of this subject with staff and with lay groups.

FARR, MAUDE, and STORY, R. C. *Statistics of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities.* Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 58 pp. 20c. A report for the year ending June 30, 1952, of the 69 land-grant colleges and

universities which enrolled 17.2 per cent of the total college enrollment and 34.9 per cent of the total enrollment in publicly controlled institutions. They also conferred 21.4 per cent of all earned degrees.

FITZWATER, C. O. *Educational Change in Reorganized School Districts*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 62 pp. 20c. Presents information relating to certain educational changes which have been made in 552 reorganized districts located in eight states (California, Idaho, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New York, and Washington) participating in the study.

FLEISCHER, NAT. *Boxing Guide*. New York 11: Good Reading Rack Service, 76 Ninth Ave. 1953. 40 pp. Up-to-date facts and figures on boxing.

FORD, N. D. *Florida*. Greenlawn (Long Island), N. Y.: Harian Publications. 1953. 126 pp. (paper cover) \$2.00. A complete guide to finding what you seek in Florida. It tells about the climate, the chief characteristics of the state, taxes, vacation spots, fishing, retirement, trailer life, business opportunities, gardening and farming, real estate, education and a school directory, descriptions of cities, charts, maps, and special articles.

Forecasting School Enrollments. New York 27: Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 W. 120th St. 1953. 38 pp. 50c. This booklet by the School Building Committee is a good guide to the factors which should be considered in predicting school enrollment. It is divided into two main sections: (1) a discussion of the factors affecting school enrollment, and (2) some advice on how to obtain data on these types of factors.

FORTESCUE, Z. T. *The Port Arthur Schools in Review, 1953*. Port Arthur, Texas: Office of Supt. of Schools. 1953. 40 pp. The superintendent presents a report on the teaching of reading, a summary of providing adequate building facilities, and some aspects of the financial structure of the school district. Pictures.

GERKEN, C. DE A. *Study Your Way Through School*. Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1953. 48 pp. 40c. Shows pupils how to develop their abilities and form effective study habits; gives pupils insight into the importance of realizing their personal limitations and why they should not attempt to do what is beyond their scope; contains directions on how to use interests wisely in planning courses of study.

GILMAN, G. W., and SWEENEY, J. W. *Atlantic Steel Company and United Steelworkers of America*. Washington 9, D. C.: National Planning Association, 1606 New Hampshire Ave., N. W. 1953. 116 pp. \$1.00. Shows growth of union-management relationship since 1941.

GOESSEL, VERNA. *Money Management, Your Equipment Dollar*. Chicago: Household Finance Corp. 1953. 36 pp. Free. Covers the basic equipment used in the home for food preparation and storage, for laundry and home cleaning. Offers information as assistance in planning the spending of a person's equipment dollars, and in comparing values and prices when he is ready to shop.

HARRIS, F. E. *Three Persistent Educational Problems: Grading, Promoting, and Reporting to Parents*. Lexington: Bureau of School Service, College of Education, Univ. of Kentucky. 1953. (September) 93 pp. \$1.00. Presents an analysis of the problems involved, reasons problems are unsolved, plans for faculty action, and suggestions for improvement.

HAYES, BASCOM. *Hidden Tuition Costs in Selected Texas Secondary Schools*. Austin: The Texas Study of Secondary Education, The University of Texas, Sutton Hall 217. 1953. 24 pp. A survey of costs in 37 Texas secondary schools shown by subject fields, types of extracurricular activities, and by grades.

HOCHWALT, F. G. *Catholic Education in the U. S. A. in 1953*. Washington, D. C.: National Catholic Welfare Conference, Dept. of Education. 1953. 19 pp. A reprint from the September-October 1953 *Religious Education* magazine giving significant facts about this topic. The author reports 2,282 Catholic secondary schools in the U. S. with an enrollment of 551,072. Elementary enrollment in 1952 was 2,791,288 with 70,515 teachers in 9,064 elementary schools.

How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers? New York 36: National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 W. 45th St. 1953. 91 pp. The fourth in a series of "working guides" published by this non-profit school improvement group, the booklet is designed for use by local and state citizens' committees whose communities are touched by the teacher shortage. It gives background information about teachers on a national scale and offers practical suggestions and checklists to facilitate study by state and local citizens' committees.

HOWE, M. L., et al. *Workbook to Supplement "English at Work."* New York 17: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1953. 128 pp. Provides exercises to lead the pupil to see into the construction of sentences and to understand how the language works.

HOWES, R. F. *Causes of Public Unrest Pertaining to Education*. Washington 6, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1953. 87 pp. \$1.00. Selected addresses and statements presented at the Harvard Summer School Conference on Educational Administration in 1953.

KELLER, J. K. *One Moment Please*. New York 11: Good Reading Rack Service, 76 Ninth Ave. 1953. 16 pp. A group of inspirational stories.

KENT, DRUZILLA, et al. *Home, School, and Community Experiences in the Homemaking Program*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 76 pp. 25c. Shows ways in which learning experiences carried on at school, in the home, and in the community can be integrated into a total program focused on over-all homemaking educational goals.

KESTNBAUM, MEYER. *Learning To Live with a Flexible Monetary Policy*. New York 22: Committee for Economic Development, 444 Madison Ave. 1953. 16 pp. An address before the American Institute of Accountants in Chicago, October 19, 1953.

LICHTENBERGER, A. R. *Nebraska Education*. Lincoln: Office of the State Supt. of Public Instruction. 1953. 105 pp. The annual report of the superintendent to the governor for the year ending December 31, 1952.

McCONNELL, J. B., co-ordinator, and BUSH, G. H., consultant. *Planning and Caring for Our Schools*. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford Univ. 1953. 80 pp. (paper cover) \$3.00. A manual and checklist to assist school custodians, superintendents of buildings and grounds, and school administrators to study mutual problems.

MACKINTOSH, H. K., and HILL, WILHELMINA. *How Children Learn To Write*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 30 pp. 15c. Suggests methods in teaching children to express themselves in writing.

MARSHALL, PETER. *The American Dream*. New York 11: Good Reading Rack Service, 76 Ninth Ave. 1953. 16 pp. An inspirational selection from *A Man Called Peter*, long on the best-sellers' list. Also available from the same Service are: *Guide to Modern Manners*, *Have a Hobby*, *The Good News Days*, and *My Most Unforgettable Character*.

Mental Health Implications in Civilian Emergencies. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 26 pp. 15c. Prepared by the Subcommittee on Civil Defense, Community Services Committee, and the National Advisory Health Council; and discusses problems that are related to civil defense.

Merchants of France. Washington 6, D. C.: Comité France Actuelle, 1911 Eye St., N. W. 1953. 23 pp. A paper of distribution. One in a series of pamphlets, including *Indo-China Morocco and Tunisia*.

MERSAND, JOSEPH, chairman. *Problems and Practices in New York City Schools.* Brooklyn 10: Dr. Irvin S. Hecht, Treasurer, 2500 Nostrand Ave. 1953. 165 pp. \$2.00. The 1953 Yearbook of the Curriculum Center of the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education, 130 W. 55th St., New York City 19, containing many of the papers presented at the meetings held during the two-year period ending June, 1953. These articles are of considerable interest since they touch on the critical issues in current education, like annual promotion, the efficiency of current teaching of the three R's, the core curriculum, early school leavers, guidance, moral and spiritual values, trends in vocational high schools, and teaching foreign language, music, art, and health education.

Motion Pictures from Ford Motor Company. Dearborn, Mich.: Film Library, Ford Motor Co., 16400 Mich. Ave.; also same company at 1500 S. 26th St., Richmond, Calif., or 15 E. 53rd St., New York City 22. 1953. 64 pp. Lists and describes about 25 16mm., sound pictures prepared by the Ford Motor Company for use by general audiences, civic clubs, youth and educational groups, schools and churches. Available on loan or purchase basis.

1953-54 Warren Yearbook Suggestions. Boston: S. D. Warren Co., 89 Broad St. This is composed of a packet of aids and suggestions that are helpful to the yearbook adviser and his yearbook staff. Included are *Better Yearbooks Through Better Planning* (90 pp., 8½" x 11") and *Warren's Yearbook Progress Chart* (16 pp., 8½" x 11"). In addition there are specimen pages from the *Cornellian* of Cornell University, the *Crimson and Gold* of Chaminade High School of Mineola, Long Island, New York, the Radcliffe College yearbook, the *Heights Violet* of New York University, and the *Yale Banner* of Yale University.

Occupational Handbook of the United States Air Force. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of the Air Force, Headquarters U.S.A.F. 1953. 192 pp. This is a manual which vocational guidance counsellors will find quite usable. The School Relations Section of the United States Air Force has a number of publications available in limited quantities to school administrators, guidance counsellors, teachers, etc., who may not already have access to them. Interested persons may write to the School Relations Section, Directorate of Training, Headquarters U. S. Air Force, Washington 25, D. C. The School Relations Section is ready to help civilian educators at any time concerning current career developments in the Air Force. These publications are *They Will Be Better Men*, 36 pp.; and *Graduate, Then Fly With the USAF*, 40 pp.

Official Handbook of the New Mexico High School Activities Association. Albuquerque: U. G. Montgomery, Executive Secretary of the New Mexico High School Activities Association. 1953 (September) 60 pp. Contains the constitution and by-laws of the association together with questions and answers concerning its operation.

OLSON, W. C., and LEWELLEN, JOHN. *How Children Grow and Develop.* Chicago 10: Science Research Associates, 57 W. Grand Ave. 1953. 40c. Analyzes

the growth process at different stages of the child's development and discusses the factors that play a part in making the most of children's possibilities for mental, physical, emotional, and social growth. The authors explain that growth patterns are individual and highly varied. Stresses the importance of not pushing the child beyond the limits his pattern permits.

On the Track of Some Good Teaching Aids. Washington 6, D. C.: School and College Service, Association of American Railroads. 1953. 8 pp. Free. Lists, illustrates, and describes some of the educational materials available from the association.

Pennsylvania Educator's Symposium on Consumer Credit. Philadelphia: Schoolmen's Week, Univ. of Pennsylvania. 1953. 68 pp. Papers and discussions.

PHIPPS, DORRIS. *Foreign Language Education in the Secondary School.* New York 27: Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 W. 120th St. 1953. 16 pp. 15c. The second of a series of leaflets reporting the work of the Secondary-School Curriculum Committee on the general topic, "The Emerging High-School Curriculum." Trends which teachers expressed in reference to the changing pattern of foreign language instruction included: (1) introduction of language study in the lower grades, (2) widening exploratory experiences in languages, (3) greater emphasis on conversation and oral competence, (4) more co-ordination of language study through various grades, (5) more co-ordination of language study with other departments, (6) more deliberate invention of better methods to utilize advantages of variations in class sizes, (7) sharper and more realistic purposes formulated and acted upon in teaching foreign languages, (8) appropriate language teaching for a wider range of pupils, (9) greater variety of modern language offerings, (10) drill in more meaningful situations, (11) greater variety of teaching material and aids, and (12) more extensive use of living sources.

POIROT, P. L. *Bargaining.* Irvington-on-Hudson, N. Y.: Foundation for Economic Education. 1953. 54 pp. One copy free. Discusses the various factors which enter into bargaining.

The Pre-adolescent Exceptional Child. Langhorn, Pa.: Child Research Clinic, The Woods School. 1953. 66 pp. Free. Proceedings of the 35th Conference of the Child Research Clinic of the Woods Schools.

Questions They Ask About Fair Trade and the Answers. New York 17: Bureau of Education on Fair Trade, 205 E. 42nd St., Suite 1909. 1953. 16 pp. Free. A series of 34 questions about fair-trade practices with answers.

Recommended Practice of Office Lighting. New York 25: Illuminating Engineering Society, 1860 Broadway. 1947. 47 pp. 50c. Analyzes the controllable factors which contribute to seeing: the task, the lighting, and the environment.

Research on Human Relations and Programs of Action. Washington 6, D. C.: American Educational Research Association, 1201 16th St., N. W. 1953 (October). 100 pp. \$1.50. This October issue of the *Review of Educational Research* (Vol. 23, No. 4) deals with several facets of human relations and action research which bear on education. To throw light on human relations insights into groups, two extensive chapters have approached group dynamics and group processes through different, though complementary, viewpoints. The first chapter is descripto-historical; the second chapter places research in a scheme which projects the research needs of the fields. With the background of these reviews of research on groups, and after a review of survey-research methods, the reader is asked to consider one of the fields in which research on human relations has specific application, the work of improving the

schools. The beginning of action-research programs in the curriculum of schools is described, along with a call for needed research on the relationship of citizens groups to education. Another field in which research on human relations has an application is the broad area of intercultural relations, involving analysis of prejudice and attempted reduction through programs of educational institutions and through projects involving community action. The research on prejudice is reviewed, the coming of age of a research-oriented intergroup education is sketched, and community action enterprises are described. Both changes in education and developments in intercultural education owe much to basic insights into group dynamics and processes. The issue, taken as a whole, represents much that is now known through research on theory in human relations and on action toward better human relations.

RINGS, E. E.; ROSENBERG, A. D.; and KAY, E. R. *Employment Outlook in the Automobile Association*. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 36 pp. 25c. This is one of a series of occupational outlook studies being made by the U. S. Dept. of Labor.

Root Vegetables in Everyday Meals. Washington 25, D. C.: Supt. of Documents. 1953. 12 pp. 5c. Recipes.

ROSENTHAL, A. M. *The United Nations—Its Record and Prospects*. New York 17: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, United Nations Plaza at 46th St. 1953. 64 pp. 75c. Reviews the United Nations' involvement in Korea, its action in halting four other regional wars, its concern with the promotion of welfare of dependent peoples and the fruitful accomplishments on its economic and social front. Also included is an evaluation of the functions of the Secretary-General and his staff.

RUSSELL, DEAN. *My Freedom Depends on Yours*. Irvington-on-Hudson, N. Y.: The Foundation for Economic Education. 1953. 28 pp. Free. An address before the Public Utilities Association of the Virginias.

Schools Help Prevent Delinquency. Vol. 31, No. 3, October 1953. Washington 6, D. C.: National Education Association. 1953. 36 pp. 50c. This bulletin brings together considerable information about the problem; the material is organized with reference to serve as a study guide; and, finally, it is hoped that this publication will encourage renewed effort to provide more effective service for all youth. Following the Introduction, Section II defines juvenile delinquency, discusses the extent of the problem, and considers costs; Section III presents a review of research in the area; Section IV treats on legal agencies available; Section V covers factors associated with delinquency that are of special significance to schools; and Section VI presents a brief bibliography.

SEAGERS, P. W. *Planning Educationally Sound Buildings at Low Cost*. Bloomington: Indiana Univ. Bookstore. 1953. (November) 110 pp. \$1.00. Proceedings of the 1953 Indiana and Midwest School Building Planning Conference.

SEGAL, ART. *Your School Yearbook: An Opportunity in Art*. Minneapolis, Minn.: Art Instruction, Inc. 1952. 24 pp. (10" x 12½") This book is available only to those who are actively engaged in yearbook production. It is an excellent guide to the yearbook editorial staff recording the story of the student year.

Social Studies. Princeton: College Entrance Examination Board, c/o Educational Testing Service, P. O. Box 592. 1953. 24 pp. 35c. A description of the social studies test of the College Entrance Examination Board.

Socio-Guidramas. New York 17: Occu-Press, 489 Fifth Ave. 1953. Available, at 50 cents each in this series, are *After High School—What?* (12 pp.) and *Ma and Sue—On A Job Interview* (12 pp.). These are guidance playlets—about ten minutes' long—presenting real-life problems (personal, social, family, school, career, etc.) which confront young people, parents, teachers, counsellors, and other educators. Presentations are followed by audience discussion under teachers' or counsellors' leadership.

STEVENSON, G. S. *Third Annual Report, 1952-1953*. New York 19: National Association for Mental Health, 1790 Broadway. 1953. 40 pp. Points out the need for care for the mentally ill and what has been done.

TANNEYHILL, ANN. *From School to Job*. New York 16: Public Affairs Committee, 22 E. 38th St. 1953. 28 pp. 25c. Assays the picture of job placements for members of minority groups.

U. S. Navy *Occupational Handbook for Women*. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of the Navy, Bureau of Naval Personnel. 1953. 82 pp. (8½" x 11") Free. A manual for civilian guidance counsellors, schools, and libraries. Describes 27 job opportunities in the Navy. Also available is a similar publication entitled *U. S. Navy Occupational Handbook for Men* (1953, 164 pp., free).

VAN DOREN, MARK. *Man's Right to Knowledge and the Free Use Thereof*. Washington 25, D. C.: Dept. of State, United States National Commission for UNESCO. 1953. 128 pp. This publication accompanied by a discussion program outline provides basic facts for the discussion of the ideas embodied in this theme.

Vision Screening of School Children. Sacramento: California State Dept. of Education. 1953. 36 pp. A guide to help school administrators train teachers and school nurses in administering vision screening tests.

Vital Issues Confronting the Assembly. New York: United Nations, Dept. of Public Information. 1953. 32 pp. Discusses items and questions concerning the charter of the United Nations. Reprinted from *United Nations Bulletin*, September 15, 1953.

WILDER, VINEY. *A Tribute to Education*. Minden, Neb.: The Warp Publishing Co. 1953. 24 pp. Poems written on the daily themes of the thirty-third observance of American Education Week.

WORK, H. K. *Annual Report—1953*. New York: New York Univ., Research Division. 1953. 32 pp. A report on the ten-year operation of the research division. \$2,017,000 were spent for sponsored research. Illustrated.

News Notes

QUALITIES OF A GOOD SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR—Robert E. Sternloff recently made a study of the characteristics of an effective school administrator in an effort to determine the difference between a successful and an unsuccessful administrator. The reports of this study formed the basis for the doctoral dissertation at the University of Wisconsin under the title of "The Critical Requirements for School Administrators Based Upon an Analysis of Critical Incidents." On pages 168-9 of this unpublished dissertation he lists twenty-seven basic general behaviors of the effective school administrator. These, arranged in rank order with the one reported most frequently listed first, are as follows: (1) interprets adequately the status, needs, problems, policies, and plans of the school; (2) provides information concerning school problems, and suspends judgment until the pertinent facts have been examined; (3) conducts all school affairs in an honest, ethical, and tactful manner; (4) utilizes consultants and specialists outside the school and co-operates with them in solving educational problems; (5) encourages all persons who will be affected to participate in policy development, and stimulates co-operative planning; (6) administers discipline effectively; (7) deals impartially and equitably with all individuals and groups; (8) shows a sincere interest in the welfare of school personnel; (9) organizes citizen or parent advisory groups, and co-operates with them in study and solution problems; (10) willingly devotes extra time to important school affairs; (11) thoroughly understands the important requirements of jobs under his supervision, selects and assigns persons according to the requirements, and promotes growth of personnel; (12) courageously demands that recommendations he considers necessary for the welfare of the school be accepted and holds to these recommendations in the face of unjust pressures and influences, in spite of jeopardy to his personal position; (13) accepts criticism gracefully; (14) conducts meetings and conferences effectively; (15) organizes the schools to offer community services and provides for community use of school facilities; (16) accepts full responsibility for achieving the educational objectives of the school system; (17) ably defends the school, school personnel, and himself from unwarranted criticism and unjust action; (18) safeguards the health of school personnel and provides for their personal safety; (19) sets a good example by his own personal behavior; (20) encourages interested persons to visit the schools and board meetings; (21) provides counseling and other guidance services for school personnel; (22) administers the budget prudently and keeps accurate financial records; (23) speaks effectively; (24) initiates action promptly in cases of emergency; (25) familiarizes himself with school board policy before making public statements or taking action; (26) identifies himself with the policies of the school system, and supports those policies; and (27) utilizes parents, and co-operates with them, to solve pupil problems satisfactorily.

WHAT IS HUMAN RIGHTS DAY?—On December 19, 1948, the General Assembly of the United Nations meeting that year in Paris, adopted and proclaimed the historic Universal Declaration of Human Rights "as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction." To celebrate it, the General Assembly

in 1950 asked that in future years December 10 be set aside as Human Rights Day by governments and interested organizations, and that reports on these celebrations be made to the Secretary-General by governments. President Dwight D. Eisenhower states: "For the people of the United States as well as for people everywhere, the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights is a significant beacon in the steady march towards achieving human rights and fundamental freedoms for all." For suggestions for celebrating this day write to United Nations, New York.

SALARIES OF ENGINEERS.—Engineering graduates of New York University in 1953 started working at salaries that averaged five per cent more than in 1952. Their average starting salary was \$345 a month, with most of the engineers (71 per cent) taking jobs in private industry. Reporting the results of an employment survey of the June graduating class, Dean Thorndike Saville of NYU's College of Engineering stated that 1953 starting salaries ranged from \$270 to \$412 per month. The increase, he noted, continued the upward trend in engineering salaries of each of the last seven years with the exception of 1949. Current starting salaries are up 52 per cent over 1947, when the average was \$227 per month. "Jobs were plentiful, and nearly half (46 per cent) of the engineering graduates were hired on the campus," Dean Saville said. "More companies than ever before took up campus recruiting in the competition to attract men to their employ."

HIGHER EDUCATION ATTRACTS MORE HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES.—According to the U. S. Office of Education, approximately 46 per cent of the 1953 high-school graduates went on to college in comparison with 31.4 per cent of the 1921 high-school graduates. (1921 is the first year for which this breakdown is available.) Of the 1921 high-school graduates, 39.8 per cent of the boys and 22.5 per cent of the girls entered higher education. Of the 1953 high-school graduates, the corresponding figures were 56 per cent for the boys and 36 per cent for the girls. In 1920-21, 8.1 per cent of the college-age group were in college as compared with 19.3 of the similar age group in 1950.—*College and University Bulletin*.

BOOKS AND RECORDS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS.—Random House, Inc., 457 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York, has available forty books that are ideal teaching aids since they present authentic information on American history in such a vivid and realistic manner that boys and girls read the book voluntarily. These books are written about events, places, personalities, and movements that are landmarks in American history. As such they are known as the Landmark Books. The series are written for pupils in grades five to ten inclusively, and, as such, all of them are usable at the secondary-school level either as reading for the average or the good reader or for the slow reader. Many of these Landmark Books have been dramatized and reproduced on records supplied by Enrichment Records, Inc., 246 Fifth Avenue, New York 1, New York. Six records are available in 78 or 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ RPM. These include *Paul Revere and the Minute Men*, *Our Independence and the Constitution*, *The Exploration of Pere Marquette*, *Lewis and Clark Expedition*, *The Monitor and the Merrimac*, and *Lee and Grant at Appomattox*. Guides for classroom use of these records are available, giving short historical backgrounds, suggestions as to what to talk about, thinking questions, and suggestions of things to find out and things to do. Folders describing the Landmark Books and the integrated records are available from the respective companies.

CATALOG OF VISUAL AIDS.—A new 40-page catalog (No. 6), *Aids to Visual Education*, has been produced by The Stanley Bowmar Company, New York 32, New York. This catalog lists filmstrips of seventeen different producers. Code letters

indicate grade level. Seven pages list educational records and on page 2, a record-filing storage system is pictured. The catalog is free to educators.

CHILD GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT CHART—The Arthur C. Croft Publications, 100 Garfield Avenue, New London, Connecticut, has recently revised and enlarged their *Child Growth and Development Chart* (22" x 25½"). This chart covers the growth, development, characteristics, and needs of the pupil from preschool through junior high and first years of senior high school. It is published by Arthur C. Croft Publications with the permission and co-operation of the public schools of the District of Columbia, Washington, D. C., and the Curriculum Committee for Health, Physical Education, and Safety in the Elementary Schools. This chart gives the teacher guidance at a glance on (1) the expected physical growth and development of the pupil to five years and through the age groups of 5, 6, and 7 years; 8, 9, and 10 years; 11, 12, and 13 years; 14, 15, and 16 years; (2) the normal and expected characteristics to be found in pupils in these years and age groups; and (3) the supervision, guidance, teaching, play, rest, psychological and emotional needs and responses of the above-mentioned age groups. Price for two charts (the minimum order accepted) is \$1.00 with additional copies at 50 cents each. A 20 per-cent educational discount is allowed on orders for five or more copies.

GUIDANCE MATERIAL FROM THE U. S. AIR FORCE—The School Relations Section of the United States Air Force has a number of pamphlets and books available for school use. Air Force Regulation 35-33 confirms the Air Force policy of encouraging young men not to leave school in order to join the Air Force, but to continue their education. Through national, state, and district education conventions, thousands of the nation's educators are learning about USAF's "Stay in School" doctrine and the availability of descriptive literature on the Aviation Cadet and other Air Force career opportunities. Some of these publications, available in limited quantities to school administrators, guidance counselors, teachers, etc., who may not already have access to them, are: "They Will Be Better Men" (26 pp.), "Graduate; Then Fly With the USAF" (44 pp.), and "Occupational Handbook of the United States Air Force" (192 pp.). Interested persons may write to School Relations Section, Directorate of Training, Headquarters U. S. Air Force, Washington 25, D. C. The School Relations Section is ready to help civilian educators at any time concerning current career developments in the Air Force.

Though the Air Force recently initiated a program permitting high-school graduates to apply for pilot training, the move was not intended to lower standards, but rather to widen selectivity. There are many outstanding and able pupils who would make good pilots even though they are unable to attend college through force of circumstances. However, college-trained men are sought after as much as ever, and if qualified, will be admitted first to the Aviation Cadet Program. In the realm of military aviation, better Air Force career opportunities await the educated youth with a desire to fly.

THE AVERAGE PERSON—The average U. S. industrial worker has made striking economic gains in the last five years, and evidently has balanced them with cultural and spiritual advances, a cross-section survey of Du Pont employees indicated. The study was made by *Better Living*, the company's magazine for employees, to discover "the living patterns, hopes, and concerns" of Du Pont workers in 1953 and compare results with a similar survey in 1948. Not only did it find sharp increases in such material things as ownership of homes, cars and household gadgets, but it also uncovered markedly higher church membership and broader interest in education among non-material aspects of employees' well-being. However, in comparing results

of the two studies in its November issue, the magazine found hanging over employees, as in 1948, "dark clouds" of anxiety over world and U. S. problems. The No. 1 worry was still world peace. The high cost of living and taxes also remained major causes for concern. But they were outranked by a new one—corruption in government. Job worries were far down the list.

The magazine staff polled 2,200 of Du Pont's 90,000 employees on, among other things, church activities, education, economic progress, marital status, and preferences in reading, music, and recreation. Church membership was found to have risen in five years from 74.7 per cent to 89.3 per-cent of company employees with nearly all church members spending from two to ten hours a month working for the church and nearly 23 per cent active in church clubs. The average employee has 12.8 years of schooling, a gain of a half year over his 1948 counterpart. In planning for his family, the survey found, he gives top priority to college degrees for his children. Although more than three years younger than in 1948, the typical Du Pont man of 1953 has a larger family. Furthermore, the poll showed, he is inclined to spend more time working about the house. One out of three Du Pont people in 1953 named gardening and home improvement as their favorite recreation. Reading, it developed, is a "prime" hobby of Du Pont families. The average woman employee, for example, reads more than six books a year, five or six magazines a month, and a newspaper every day.

On the economic side, home ownership among Du Pont employees was shown to have risen from 49.6 per cent in 1948 to 57.4 per cent this year as an estimated 7,000 families moved into new homes of their own. The average 1953 Du Pont employee's home, 6.1 rooms and valued at \$12,985, is larger and worth \$2,800 more than it was in 1948. Automobile ownership has gone from 72.8 per cent for the men five years ago, to 88.9 per cent for all Du Pont employees today. About 14,000 Du Pont families bought their first cars after 1948. The typical Du Pont man now owns both home and automobile and has, statistically, 5.3 major electrical appliances in the house in comparison with 4.8 for 1948. Over-all savings of Du Pont workers, counting life insurance and securities ownership, climbed in the last five years, the survey showed. Life insurance, in addition to company insurance, is held by nine out of ten employees and 40 per cent of them have more than \$5,000 worth of it.

AIDS FOR THE SHOP INSTRUCTOR—Shop teachers will find the magazine, *Delta Power Tool Instructor*, very helpful in their work. This 12-page magazine is published four times during the school year by the Delta Power Tool Division, Rockwell Manufacturing Company, 450-1 North Lexington Avenue, Pittsburgh 8, Pa. Subscriptions are free, on request, to instructors and administrators in the field of industrial arts and vocational education when use is made of the school's letterhead. It contains scaled drawings of projects for pupils to perform as well as information about the various types of tools and machines used in a well-equipped school shop.

THE ANTI-DELINQUENT COMMUNITY—Statistics disprove the popularly held "easy answers" for the causes of juvenile delinquency, Bertram M. Beck, director of a special juvenile delinquency project in the U. S. Office of Education told delegates to the 39th annual conference of the National League to Promote School Attendance in Washington this month. Describing as "absurd" the widespread notion that children become delinquents because of irresponsible parents, poor housing, modern education, or coddling by juvenile court officials, Beck said, "All of these bright ideas go out the window when confronted with statistical facts." He pointed out that the rate of youth offenses climbed from 1940 and 1942 and continued at a high rate until

1946. Then the rate dipped sharply until 1948, when it started to climb again to present levels. Does it make sense, he asked, that parents' irresponsibility increased, decreased, and then increased for specific periods during those years? "Absurd," he answered. Beck also debunked the "Chicago Plan," "which gives boys a taste of jail. "The most telling reply to this," he said, "is the simple fact that if putting children in unpleasant jails could solve delinquency, our country would be free of this problem, for children in jail has been one of the most recurrent problems which we have faced." As for those who advocate a return to "old-fashioned punishment," Beach asked, "When have we left it?"

HELPFUL READING—The October, 1953, issue of the *School Executive* contains quite a number of articles for profitable reading by the school administrator. Some of these articles are: "Steps in Changing Pupil Progress Reports" (pp. 51-53); "Let the Handbook Answer Those Questions" (pp. 54-55); "A Year Round School Program" (pp. 56-59); "A Junior High Core Program for Slow Learners" (pp. 64-66); "Is It Time for Typewriter Replacement?" (pp. 67); "How To Choose A Clock System" (pp. 74-77), "Mason (Michigan) Serves Lunch in a Nutshell" (pp. 141-44); and "Form in Educational Architecture" (includes 27 school designs and pictures—pp. 79-93).

SCHOOLS TO GET EXCLUSIVE FILMS OF GLACIER EXPEDITION—Dramatic films of a geological expedition to a one-million-year-old glacier in the Canadian Rockies form a part of the November issue of the *News Magazine of the Screen*. This monthly educational motion picture brings to the classroom a report of scientific research in the snowy wastes of the Saskatchewan glacier. A *News Magazine* cameraman accompanied the expedition to bring back spectacular pictures of the glacier itself, as well as the tests conducted to measure its structure and movement. A strange glacial waterspout, yawning crevasses, and a vast desert of snow and ice are among the scenes filmed at the prehistoric glacier. Scientists are shown bringing in equipment by sturdy pack horses over twisting mountain paths. Methods of measuring the depth of the glacier are explained in the picture and accompanying commentary. The glacier report is one of twelve news and feature stories in this November issue of the *News Magazine*, which is produced by Warner-Pathe News and distributed by educational authorities in 29 states, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia. Some of the other stories are: a history of clocks, some trouble spots of the world, President Eisenhower's birthday party at Hershey, Pennsylvania, spectacular pictures of the 12-million dollar fire in Oakland, California, and aviation's jet-propelled assault on speed records. For information about this November issue and other monthly issues write to The *News Magazine of the Screen*, 625 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.

GENERAL EDUCATION—The October, 1953, issue of the *High School Journal*, published by the School of Education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, is devoted entirely to the subject of General Education. It contains seven articles discussing "What Is General Education?" "Does Subject Matter Contribute to General Education?" "Do Youth Have Common Needs?" "Who Attends the Public School?" "What Auxiliary Services Are Needed?" "Bibliography on General Education," and "Films Dealing with General Education." This issue was developed around the theme "Identifying the Problems." Succeeding issues will give attention to "Social Understandings," "Role of Scientific Knowledge," "Health and Safety," "Life Enrichment," "Vocational and Family Life Education," and "Curriculum for General Education." This excellent magazine is published monthly eight times during the school

year, October to May. Subscription price is \$2.00 each; clubs of five to nine, \$1.75 each; clubs of ten or more, \$1.50 each; single copies, 40 cents each.

INDUSTRY, ENGINEERING SOCIETIES, AND UNIVERSITY CO-OPERATE—

A total of 285 practicing engineers and scientists enrolled in the recently expanded group of graduate courses offered this year for the first time on a part-time basis through the joint plan of the Evening College and the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences at the University of Cincinnati. So great was the response to the program that additional class sections were required in three of the nine courses, and six of the classes were declared closed at maximum enrollments. This is the first in a series of yearly offerings in planned sequences designed to meet the needs of college graduates in the fields of physics and chemistry, and in aeronautical, civil, chemical, electrical, mechanical, and metallurgical engineering. The program will enable young men to study at advanced levels while employed in the Cincinnati area.

The program, which was first announced by the Board of Directors of the University last March, came to fruition as the result of the joint efforts of the engineering societies, a local industry committee, and the administration of the University. These three groups have participated during the past year in a nation-wide program of the Engineers' Council for Professional Development, which is aimed at stimulating the continued personal growth of the young engineer, particularly in the first five years after graduation from college.

AN INSPIRATION TO THE RELUCTANT READER.—Available for classroom use is the attractively colored pictorial John Duke McKee map of *American Folklore and Legend*. This map can be secured from Elizabeth Pilant, Executive Secretary of the National Conference American Folklore for Youth, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, at fifty cents each. This map (20" x 31") depicts in a variety of attractive color important personages and tales that arouse the interest of the slow reader and gives him the eager desire to read about them. It fulfills one of the major requirements for remedial reading—has high interest level and low difficulty rating. Pupils studying this map will be motivated in their reading. Teachers have found this map to be a real incentive for remedial reading work and an aid in getting the reluctant reader to want to read. It is of interest not only to pupils in grades seven to twelve but also to those in the upper elementary-school level.

BETTER LIGHT, BETTER SIGHT.—Of special interest is the Sept.-Oct., 1953, issue of *Better Light Better Sight News* containing the article entitled "Home Lighting Workshop at San Francisco State College." This Workshop is extremely significant, not only because it marks the first time that upper division college credit has been given for such a course, but also because the course was given by persons connected with business organizations. This is a joint endeavor between industry and educational groups. The author, Mrs. Fenner, describes the groundwork, the long-range planning which gradually built acceptance for non-commercial educational programs of this type. Reprints of this article can be secured at a nominal cost by writing to Better Light Better Sight Bureau, 420 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, New York.

CORONATION DAY FILM.—The British Information Services announces the availability of a 16mm., sound color film (20 minutes) entitled *Coronation Day*. From the procession to Westminster Abbey through the ritual inside the Abbey and the return procession, all the highlights of this splendid event of the year are photographed in full color. In addition to an enlightening commentary spoken by James McKechnie, there are excerpts of the actual music which was played during the ceremony. Prints are available from the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York, or any of its regional offices and depositories, for rent only at a rental rate of \$5.00 per day.

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POLIO VACCINE—Plans are now being made by the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis for large scale testing of a polio vaccine to determine how effective it is in protecting against the disease under natural conditions of exposure. Basil O'Connor, president of the National Foundation, made this statement following the report on polio vaccine studies presented by Dr. Jonas E. Salk of the University of Pittsburgh at the annual meeting in Miami of the American Academy of Pediatrics. The Pittsburgh scientist's investigations are being supported with March of Dimes funds.

As soon as plans are complete, Mr. O'Connor indicated, the details of the vaccine validity study will be made known. It is hoped, he said, that the study can get underway in the early part of next year. In general, such a validity test would entail the vaccination of hundreds of thousands of children during a non-epidemic period and then observing what protection resulted when outbreaks of polio next visited their communities. Mr. O'Connor pointed out that since 1949 remarkable progress has taken place in polio research. That year witnessed the removal of a major obstacle which was blocking the efforts of scientists in developing a means of preventing polio. Another scientist supported by the National Foundation—Dr. John F. Enders of Harvard and the Children's Hospital in Boston—accomplished this with the discovery of a method for growing polio virus in test-tube cultures of non-nervous tissue. In less than two years this was followed by another achievement—the identification of three types of polio virus capable of causing the human disease. That knowledge resulted from the co-operative efforts of teams of scientists from the universities of Southern California, Utah, Kansas, and Pittsburgh. These two major discoveries—both of which were made possible by the American public's support—are fundamentally responsible for the recent rapid advances in the fight against infantile paralysis, Mr. O'Connor said.

BOOKLETS FOR GUIDANCE COUNSELLORS—A special kit of twenty booklets for family living teachers, marriage education instructors, and guidance counsellors has been assembled by the Public Affairs Committee, a non-profit educational organization. The kit is available to educators for \$3.50. Among topics covered are basic problems of boy-girl relations, broken homes, helping children learn responsibility, adoption, wives who work, child-discipline techniques, sex-education, and child-study concerns. The booklets are designed for individual or classroom use in high school and college, and for teacher-training work. For information write Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th Street, New York, New York.

DO YOU KNOW ABOUT HR 5180 NOW BEFORE THE U. S. CONGRESS?—This bill would exempt \$125 per month of teachers' retirement income from the Federal income tax. It would allow a teacher a total annual exemption of retirement income amounting to \$1,500. This would be in addition to his \$600 personal exemption

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while he is retired and under age 65. After he has reached age 65, it would mean an exemption of \$1,500 in addition to his personal exemption of \$1,200, or a total effective exemption of \$2,700 per year.

HR 5180 was introduced in the House on May 13, 1953, by Congressman Noah M. Mason. If passed by the House and Senate and signed by the President, it will mean substantial tax savings for all groups of retired people whose retirement income is not now exempt. Congressional hearings on the bill were held by the House Ways and Means Committee August 13. More than 30 persons testified, each representing a state or national organization. Among these were: NEA, National Retired Teachers Association, National Conference on Public Employee Retirement Systems, Fraternal Order of Police, International Association of Firefighters, National Association of Retired Civil Employees. Congressmen Victor A. Know and Aime J. Forand of the Ways and Means Committee have shown their support of exemption legislation by introducing bills very similar to HR 5180. Since the hearings some members of the Committee have pledged their full support of the bill.

CHARTING CAREERS—College and high-school pupils have a surprisingly accurate means for charting profitable careers and pursuing the studies which will make them possible. This was announced by Science Research Associates, Inc., one of the nation's largest publishers of testing and guidance materials, with the publication of *Fact—the Flanagan Aptitude Classification Tests*. *Fact* is a battery of 14 aptitude tests which have been found through on-the-job analyses to be the necessary skills for success in 30 occupations. The occupations range from accountant to writer, airplane pilot to plumber, and biological scientist to electrician.

Since World War II, aptitude testing has moved from the laboratory to actual performance. By identifying the key on-the-job elements in a given occupation, tests could then be devised to select and classify the individuals who could be expected to be successful in that occupation. The *Fact* battery was developed by Dr. C. Flanagan, professor of psychology at the University of Pittsburgh and director of the American Institute for Research. Various combinations of these skills needed for an individual's success in a given occupation are: (1) inspection, (2) coding, (3) memory, (4) precision, (5) assembly, (6) scales, (7) co-ordination, (8) judgment and comprehension, (9) arithmetic, (10) patterns, (11) components, (12) tables, (13) mechanics, and (14) expression.

The occupation for which *Fact* has been validated are: accountant, artist, biological scientist, businessman, chemist, office clerk, dentist, draftsman, electrician, engineer, farmer, humanities professor, lawyer, machinist, mathematician, mechanic, nurse, physician, physicist, airplane pilot, plumber, printer, psychologist, salesperson, secretary, social scientist, social worker, structural worker, teacher, and writer. The battery is also helpful for determining general college aptitudes.

Proof of *Fact's* ability to predict accurately has come from extensive follow-up studies of 1,600 high-school seniors who were first given the battery in 1947. Those who showed high aptitudes in given occupations and pursued those occupations progressed far more steadily and favorably in pay scale and responsibility than those scoring less well, Dr. Flanagan found. In continuing studies, he currently is amassing further statistical data involving thousands more individuals. For complete information about this battery write to Science Research Associates, Inc., 57 West Grand Avenue, Chicago 10, Illinois.

TEACHER SUPPLY PROBLEM—Among the suggestions which have been made to help solve the teacher supply problem are the following: (1) organize Future Teachers Clubs in high schools and colleges; (2) improve salary schedules (better

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salaries, higher maximums, better annual increases, fewer differentials); (3) improve teaching conditions (reasonable class loads, teaching schedules, extracurricular activities); (4) improve retirement benefits; (5) provide more security for the efficient teacher (tenure, continuing contracts); (6) improve employment practices; (7) give more help to the new teacher in the system; (8) improve teacher, administrator, school board, and community relations; (9) provide adequate instructional supplies and equipment; (10) give to each teacher written and well-defined school policies; (11) reduce the number and amount of reports and other clerical duties; (12) eliminate the inefficient teacher; (13) recommend good housing and eating facilities; (14) improve the in-service education program (encourage professional growth); (15) help teachers to improve their public relations techniques; (16) help teachers with special problems cases; (17) give early help in problems of discipline; (18) acquaint parents, taxpayers, and the personnel of the school system with the program, needs, and problems of the local schools; (19) encourage outstanding high-school graduates to enter teaching; (20) improve standards for certification so as to increase the prestige and status of educators; and (21) do more to retain efficient teachers.—*Michigan Educational Journal*.

THE LOUISIANA STORY—The 16mm. film, *Louisiana Story*, has been acquired for exclusive release by Contemporary Films, 13 East 37th Street, New York. *Louisiana Story* has an appeal on many levels. It depicts with respect and honesty a little-known part of the country and the people there. It follows with detail the life of a young boy as he moves from day to day with his animal friends and enemies of the swamp. Through it one realizes the impression made on the life of a young Cajun boy by the drilling of an oil well in his Louisiana bayou. And it records how the massive weight of modern industry is beneficently introduced to a rural society. The running time of the film is 77 minutes. It is available on a rental basis for \$50.

INSTITUTE FOR HIGH-SCHOOL JUNIORS—Forty-eight high-school juniors, outstanding in science and mathematics, initiated the Engineering and Science division of the National High School Institute with a five-week program last summer at Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. Selected on personal application and recommendations from their principals and teachers, these pupils gained a better understanding of their major interest: engineering, physics, chemistry, or mathematics. Their lectures and discussions covered three main fields: concepts in mathematics and their use; concepts of physical science and their relation to engineering, and the nature of the several engineering fields.

Northwestern professors supervised the courses and arranged field trips to Chicago industrial plants and cultural centers such as the Rosenwalk Museum of Science and Industry, Nash Motor Car Company, Abbott Laboratories, Standard Oil Company, Commonwealth Edison Company, and the Chicago Transit Authority. The social activities of the Engineering and Science division were carried on with the other three divisions of the Institute: Speech, Music, and Journalism. The pupils enjoyed summer stock plays, outdoor concerts at Ravinia Park, major league baseball, and swimming from the campus beaches. The cost of the program, including tuition, board, and room for five weeks, was \$227.50. However, many pupils received assistance in the form of tuition scholarships.

ARCHITECTURAL EXHIBIT OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS AT AASA NATIONAL CONVENTION—The School Building Architectural Exhibit has become an important feature of the programs at the annual national and regional conventions of the American Association of School Administrators. Thousands of administrators who will attend the convention from February 13-18, 1954, at Atlantic City are looking forward

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to the exhibit of school building plans. Architects will be invited to participate by submitting exhibits of school buildings.

CAREER PAMPHLETS—The Vocational Service Bureau, 1424 16th Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C., has recently published the following four occupational briefs: *Careers in the Consumer Finance Field*, *Career as Probation and Parole Officer*, *Careers in the Printing Industry*, and *Career as Upholsterer*. Each of these 8-page briefs provides information on the following topics of importance in career planning: importance, size, and history of the occupation or industry; outlook; nature of work; personal and educational qualifications; entry and advancement in occupation; earnings, hours, and working conditions; sources of employment, and sources of further information. Copies are available at 20 cents each from the Vocational Service Bureau at the above address.

INSURANCE INDUSTRY'S INTEREST IN DRIVER EDUCATION—Plans to expand the driver education movement intensively in the nation's rural areas, where it is weakest because many small school districts feel they cannot afford courses in safe driving in their high schools, were discussed at the eleventh annual driver education breakfast conference which featured the insurance industry's participation in the National Safety Congress at Chicago. The conference, sponsored jointly by the accident prevention department of the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies and New York University's Center for Safety Education, which was founded and is largely supported by the Association, marked the twentieth anniversary of the driver education movement. It was highlighted by reports of two states which have begun to solve the cost problem in rural sections by introducing a co-operative "Circulating Course" in driver education in order to make it available to pupils in several adjoining counties or school districts.

Driver education administrators of thirty-one states who attended the breakfast forum offered this cost-sharing plan as one means of providing training in safe driving in thousands of "little red high schools" comprising most of the 57 per cent of the nation's 20,084 secondary schools which still do not offer such courses. The new trend of sharing costs of driver education courses in order to make it available to more students in country districts was reported by Pennsylvania and Iowa. Ivan Stehman, Pennsylvania's state supervisor of driver education, told more than 100 state educational and police and highway patrol officials participating in the forum on the problem that several counties in that state had begun to share costs of providing teachers, materials, training vehicles, and other items in order to place the program within the reach of pupil and community pocketbooks. In Iowa, according to Bert L. Woodcock, head of the department of driver education at Iowa State Teachers College, there are numerous instances where two or three schools or school districts have worked out the problem in this way.

Dr. Herbert J. Stack, director of NYU's Center for Safety Education, who has been identified with driver education since its earliest beginnings in the nineteen thirties, said "Skills of the Road" courses in nineteen high schools in Bergen County, N. J., were among the very first in the nation to teach safe driving to pupils. After slow early growth through the late thirties and the World War II period, he said, the movement experienced rapid expansion under the National Driver Education Award Program sponsored by the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies. By 1953, total registration in driver education courses had grown to 788,981 pupils in 8,653 public high schools. Dr. Stack pointed out, but the movement faces a real challenge in reaching the 57 per cent of high schools which are not now offering the courses. Concentration on rural areas will help solve that problem, he declared.

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TRAVEL—Last summer the NEA Travel Service reached a new peak. More than 1,000 teachers from 46 states, Hawaii, and the District of Columbia traveled as NEA Tour members to 23 countries, for a gross business of more than \$500,000. More than 180 members traveled to Europe. Over 300 teachers visited Cuba. The Travel Division co-operated on tours with four colleges and universities.

COMBATTING JUVENILE DELINQUENCY—Local associations are encouraged to give special attention to problems of juvenile delinquency in the areas which they serve. It is estimated that in 1951 more than 1,000,000 boys and girls under 18 years of age came to the attention of the police for misbehavior; 350,000 were referred to juvenile courts by police and others; 115,000 were held overnight; 95,000 were placed on probation; and 40,000 were committed to training schools. The roots of most adult crime are largely in behavior breakdown during youth. The financial cost of handling crime has been estimated at over \$15 billion annually. The cost in human happiness and usefulness is many times that.

The way to deal with juvenile delinquency is to prevent it—to uproot the weeds of wrong attitude and action before the community is forced to step in with its laws, police, courts, and reformatories. This is the task of every teacher, and a community-wide program to combat juvenile delinquency can be measured by the extent to which every teacher is aware of the problem and is seeking to understand it and to do something about it.

BOY SCOUT WEEK—Over three million members of the Boy Scouts of America will celebrate their 44th anniversary from February 7 to 13, 1954. During Boy Scout Week, schools, churches, and civic organizations will join with the Scouts in observing their significant occasion. Many junior and senior high schools will wish to develop special Scout programs, exhibits, and demonstrations to focus attention on citizenship participation by youth. Suggestions for Boy Scout Week activities in the schools are available. For information write to Boy Scouts of America, 2 Park Avenue, New York 1, New York, or contact local Scout leaders.

NEW MAGAZINE FOR HIGH-SCHOOL MATHEMATICS PUPILS—For many years secondary-school teachers of mathematics have felt a need for a journal written especially for the pupil. The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, in co-operation with the Mathematical Association of America, is attempting to meet this need by the publication of a new journal called the *Mathematics Student Journal*. It will contain enrichment and recreational material not found in the ordinary textbooks. Alert teachers of mathematics have long been aware of the unlimited amount of enriching and stimulating material available on an elementary level in mathematics but they have found that the press of busy schedules makes it difficult to look up this material and prepare it in a form for presentation to pupils. The new journal will aid greatly in solving this problem. A special feature of the journal will be a problem department to which pupils may contribute both problems and solutions. Because of its nature, the new journal will also appeal to many adults with an interest in mathematics.

The new journal will be issued four times a year during the months of October, December, February, and April. The first issue will be distributed in February, 1954. The subscription price will be 20 cents per year or 15 cents per semester. However, mailing will be done only in bundles of five copies or more, since the low subscription price does not permit the mailing of individual copies. Teachers should obtain subscriptions for their pupils and submit them in a group, all orders in a group running for the same period of time and being mailed to the same address. Subscriptions should be

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INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS FOR THE SCHOOL SHOP—The Stanley Tools Company of New Britain, Connecticut, has quite a number of materials available for classroom use. The company distributes the *Stanley News* which describes many of these teaching aids. Included in one issue are: the nine Stanley 35mm. filmstrips covering the essential information on adjustment, correct use, and care of bench planes (price \$5 for the set of 9 filmstrips); Stanley Tool Guide (25 cents each or 15 cents each in quantities of 10 or more); Stanley Instruction Charts (38 charts covering all woodworking and 7 metal working tools, \$6. per set); Stanley Safety Charts (36 charts, \$2.50 per set); Stanley Plans (95 plan sheets in loose-leaf binder, \$2); Woodworking Patterns (3 sets of 6 patterns each, 25 cents per set); and Early American Designs (3 sets of 15 projects each at 25 cents per set).

A FILM ON UNDERSTANDING MOVIES—The Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English to Co-operate with Teaching Film Custodians, Inc., 211 West 68th Street, Chicago, Illinois, has available a 17-minute film entitled *Understanding Movies*. This film has been planned to call attention to aspects of motion pictures that are significant as a basis for the appreciation of films. It is intended to supply a valuable tool to the teacher of English, motion-picture appreciation, speech, or dramatics, but it needs to be set in a context that will enhance its meaning. It is important, therefore, for the teacher to familiarize himself thoroughly with the film and to work out a plan for using it before showing the film to pupils. Merely passive viewing of the film will be of little value to either teacher or pupil. The authority for the selection of material and the quality of its presentation rests with the National Council of Teachers of English, under whose auspices the film has been prepared.

A short introductory sequence develops the theme of greater enjoyment of motion pictures. This is followed by excerpts from five superior commercial films to illustrate excellence in five fields: directing, acting, photography, editing, and art and music. These excerpts are from *Tennessee Johnson*, *The Good Earth*, *Treasure Island*, *David Copperfield*, and *Romeo and Juliet*. The film ends with shots from each sequence reminding pupils that appreciation of these elements of film making increases enjoyment of motion pictures. For information concerning its availability, write to the Committee at the above address.

NEW MAGAZINE FOR TEACHERS OF ARITHMETIC—*The Arithmetic Teacher*, a new journal for teachers of arithmetic, has just been announced by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. This magazine has been planned to fill a long-felt need for more assistance to teachers of arithmetic. It will be devoted to the improvement of the teaching of mathematics in kindergarten and in all the grades of the elementary school. No other journal of this type is now published. The new magazine will be a companion journal to the well-known *Mathematics Teacher*, now in its forty-sixth year of publication. Persons interested in the broad field of mathematics education will want to read both journals. The new journal will be issued four times each year during the months of October, December, February, and April. The first issue will be published in February, 1954. Distribution will be on a subscription basis. The subscription price will be \$1.50 per year to individuals and \$2.50 per year to schools, libraries, and other institutions. There will be an additional charge of 10 cents for mailing to Canada and 25 cents for mailing to foreign countries. Subscriptions should be addressed to: National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

SCHOOL TRAFFIC SAFETY POSTER CONTEST—The Tenth Annual AAA School Traffic Safety Poster Contest is now underway. A total of \$2,275 in prizes is

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Consumer Education Study

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being offered for the best posters submitted illustrating the Ten Safe-Walking Rules. Ten of the best posters submitted are reproduced and distributed to elementary-school teachers for use in their classroom safety lessons. Over 205,000 of these will be distributed monthly this year. The Poster Contest has received a splendid reception from educators, parents, and pupils. This year the AAA was able to develop a school safety poster series for the 1953-54 school year from over 6,000 entries. The closing date for mailing complete poster designs is midnight March 26, 1954. For information write to Poster Contest Headquarters, American Automobile Association, Washington 6, D. C.

MOST SCHOOLS OVER-CROWDED, MANY ARE FIRETRAPS, SURVEY SHOWS—All over the country, people are becoming concerned about the growing gap between the condition of schoolhouses and the standard of housing that makes good education possible, according to a *Woman's Home Companion* survey based on information provided by school superintendents in 119 major communities—America's biggest cities, medium-sized towns, fast-growing suburbs. The *Companion* survey shows that of the 119 cities studied, 59 have extremely inadequate school facilities—overcrowded classrooms, ancient and firetrap schools. Fifty-one other cities are only slightly better off. Only nine cities could be rated good. Albert Q. Maisel, who reports the results of the survey in November, 1953, *Woman's Home Companion* article, "How Safe Is Your Child's school?" says: "We're in a race against the collapse of our educational system—and we're losing." Here are some of the *Companion's* survey findings: The key problem that plagues our schools is over-crowding. Thirty pupils to a grade-school classroom—and somewhat fewer in high schools—is the maximum acceptable number. With more pupils, teachers are over-burdened, unable to give personal attention to pupils who need it. The *Companion* survey shows such over-crowding in 71 out of 119 communities. Some of the cities where over-crowding is worst are the fast-growing boom towns. Their usual alibi is, "We're growing so fast, we just can't keep up." The alibi is often phony, says Maisel. Other fast-growing towns—often in the same states and operating under similar tax laws—have kept step with enrollments and held their classroom loads to reasonable levels.

Inextricably linked to over-crowding is the problem of old, deteriorated, unsatisfactory schools. Seven per cent of our school pupils attend school in buildings from 50 to more than 90 years old. In the 119 urban communities of the *Companion* survey, 73 cities exceeded this national average; 21 cities educated more than a quarter of their pupils in such outdated structures. Even more dangerous are the nation's firetrap schools, states Maisel. The *Companion* survey discloses that about twenty per cent of all the nation's pupils are housed in buildings which cannot meet minimum fire safety requirements. Another seventeen per cent spend their school days in borderline buildings of doubtful safety. The records of the fire underwriters show how great these hazards are. Every day an average of seven school fires occur; more than 2,000 every year.

The saddest fact about the shoddy condition of our schoolhouses is that so little is being done to rectify it, says Maisel. Seventy-seven of the cities studied have either very inadequate school building programs or none at all. In every town one can measure progress—or lack of it—by evaluating the school building program. If new pupils outnumber new classroom seats, that city is losing ground and conditions will get worse and stay worse. If new building just keeps pace with increasing enrollments, ground is being lost too, for then the existing unsatisfactory schools cannot be replaced. They grow older, more decrepit, more of a menace. "The blame for bad conditions lies not upon hired educational leaders," says Maisel. "In some places antiquated laws that limit school building funds are to blame. In most places the fault lies with the community—the

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taxpayers and citizens who do not care enough to support our system of free universal public education." The *Companion* suggests these several courses of action that have worked in other cities:

More for the formation of a PTA school housing committee. Initiate an inventory of school-building needs—to eliminate over-crowding, replace antiques and firetraps, anticipate growing enrollments.

Through your PTA or independently, start a city-wide Citizens Committee for the Public Schools. Be sure you have a broad all-inclusive committee of businessmen, civic leaders, churchmen, and representatives of every social, racial, or religious group. To help form such committees is the function of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 2 West 45 Street, New York 36, New York.

Get local newspapers interested in better school housing. Ask them to assign a reporter to school coverage.

Back up your school board when it is fighting for better schools and don't hesitate to prod it when its performance falls short.

Vote in favor of school bonds whenever you know new schools are needed.

Finally, even if you've never joined in a civic fight before, don't hesitate to get into this one, says Maisel. Remember what you're fighting for: the birth-right of your child and every American child to get the best education he is capable of absorbing.

AIR POWER IN THE ATOMIC AGE—The role of air power since the Wright brothers' first flight 50 years ago is developed in a filmstrip entitled *Air Power in the Atomic Age*—types of planes, the vast changes, the uses in war and peace, and the responsibilities of defense in the Atomic Age. This 60-frame filmstrip has six sections: an introduction on changing concepts of space and time; the growing peacetime use of planes; developments in military aircraft; the communist threat in terms of jet aircraft and nuclear weapons; steps to strengthen American air power; and the problems of building and maintaining strong air defense.

The filmstrip is 35mm. and is illustrated with photographs, maps, and charts that present the subject in clear, graphic terms. The teachers' discussion manual, with an introduction to the topic and additional data on each frame, accompanies the filmstrip. This is the third in the 1953-54 series of eight *New York Times* filmstrips on current affairs. The entire series of eight filmstrips is available for \$15.00; individual filmstrips cost \$2.50 each. They are available from the Office of Educational Activities, The New York Times, Times Square, New York 36, New York.

AMERICAN PERSONNEL AND GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION'S 1954 CONVENTION—This convention built around the theme of "Guidance in a Free World" will be held in Hotel Statler in Buffalo, New York, from April 11 to 15, 1954. Divisions of the Association participating are the: American College Personnel Association, American School Counselors Association, National Association of Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Trainers, National Vocational Guidance Association, and Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education. Member organizations included are: Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth, Altrusa International, and Western Personnel Institute.

Registration begins Sunday, April 11, 1954, at 3:00 P.M. Special interest seminars for Sunday at 7:00 P.M. have been provided for college student personnel administrators, professors of guidance, counseling agency administrators, elementary-school counselors, industrial personnel workers, and city directors of guidance. Likewise, special interest topics scheduled during the convention are: graduate student seminars, professional workshops, international speakers, occupational research, clinics, and demonstrations. Placement service, convention tours, and planned hospitality are also parts of the convention program. All interested persons are cordially invited to attend. For detailed information and registration forms write to: Registration Chairman, APGA Convention, 1685 Elmwood Avenue, Buffalo 7, New York.

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